PRACTICAL GUIDANCE METHODS

for Counselors, Teachers and Administrators

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION FOR WOMEN
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Practical Guidance Methods

for Counselors, Teachers and Administrators

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To KAREN KAY
who has had her individual differences
analyzed by her daddy

Preface

The education of each child according to his individual needs is the challenge to our schools today. Each child presents a unique pattern of abilities, interests, and needs; thus our thinking, planning, and doing must be in terms of the individual student.

Guiding and teaching are part of the same process, for the good teacher guides as he teaches. Since it is the responsibility of the school to provide growth experiences which are meaningful and useful to the individual child and suitable to his mental aptitudes, his physical potentialities, and his emotional, social, and personal needs, education must be a personal, intimate experience. Not only must the child be taught the necessary fundamental skills and knowledges in keeping with his level of abilities and needs, but he must also have help in understanding himself and in adjusting realistically to the many forces about him. The traditional lockstep, mechanical type of teaching and of attempting to adjust to pupil needs must give way to the newer approach, which places the emphasis upon the total development of human personalities. Our educational programs must be evaluated in terms of the benefits to individual students.

Guidance is an adjustive process. It is concerned not only with necessary adjustments in the thinking, feeling, and doing of the individual student but also with the many adjustments, services, and techniques found within the student's school that make those necessary adjustments possible.

A basic plan for guidance which is intended to serve the individual needs of all students is not enough. The guidance of the individual student—the adjustive processes within the individual and within his environment—must be the concern of all persons in a school who in any way plan or direct services and adjustive experi-

ences. That the counselors and other professionally trained guidance workers in a school bear important responsibilities cannot be questioned. It is the classroom teacher, however, who is in a strategic and enviable position in regard to rendering everyday, close-contact guidance of many types to growing boys and girls. For a large proportion of students, at least for the time being, we must rely upon the classroom teacher to perform guidance and counseling services. It is hoped that this volume will be of special help to the teacher in his work with students.

The administrator is important, too, in that he is responsible for the policies which make it possible to provide guidance for every student. He needs to have the guidance point of view and to facilitate its inculcation in the plans for his school.

Counselors, teachers, administrators, and others who plan programs, teach, and guide growing children need ready sources of information on how to meet the growth needs of individual children. This book was prepared to serve this need by reflecting trends in educational thinking and by presenting useful techniques, adjustments, and approaches. It is conceded that many of the suggestions are applicable only to the larger schools. Most of the materials, however, deal with the needs of individual students wherever they are—in large or small schools, urban or rural areas.

The author is especially indebted to the many writers and research workers in the field of guidance whose contributions have been used in preparation of the manuscript. Where direct quotations have been made, credit to the authors and publishers has been given.

Many people have assisted directly or indirectly in the planning and writing of the book. For the basic interest in guidance work and the will to move forward in this field, the author is indebted to Dr. K. O. Broady, Dr. D. A. Worcester, Dr. G. W. Rosenlof, and Dean F. E. Henzlik—all of the University of Nebraska—and to Dr. C. W. Scott of Yale University. The author wishes to express special appreciation to Dr. K. O. Broady, who has been the author's guide and counselor over a period of years and who has given encouragement and assistance in the planning and preparation of this manuscript. Without his help, this work would not have been possible. The author wishes to acknowledge appreciation for the many constructive suggestions given by Dr. I. D. Weeks, President of the

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Robert H. Knapp

Vermillion, S.D.
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CHAPTER 1 *Learning about the Guidance Needs of Individual Students*

A POINT OF VIEW ON GUIDANCE

1.1 *What Is Guidance?*

Learning about the individual student, helping him to understand himself, effecting changes in him and in his environment which will help him to grow and develop as much as possible—these are the elements of guidance. Guidance is a complex process; it must encompass the total needs of the individual student. It is applicable to the student's educational, social, moral, emotional, health, avocational, and leisure-time needs. Not least in importance, it is applicable to his vocational needs when that time arrives. Guidance is a dynamic process; it must be active and continuous because growth is continuous. Boys and girls grow through active participation in meaningful experiences. Guidance implies that initiative is present and that the changes brought about in student and environment are the result of action. The intelligent guidance of students into adjustments and areas of experience in keeping with individual needs should be one of the major aims of all education.

1.2 *Where Should Guidance Be Found?*

Guidance begins to function when the individual first comes in contact with some aspect of the school and continues until he leaves school and becomes a functioning, sharing, responsible member of

society. Guidance must be an integral part of each student's program. Whether the individual is in a one-room rural school or in one of the great cities, he is entitled to receive the services of guidance. The principles of guidance are not new; they have been in existence since the first contact between teacher and pupil. However, development and refinement of systems of guidance built on carefully thought-through principles of guidance are new. The techniques for accomplishing ends and the development of instruments of measurement share a prominent place in this development. The larger schools have taken the lead in the development of guidance programs, because of better facilities and better-trained personnel. The smaller schools have relied primarily upon informal guidance. Although informal guidance has great value, it is not adequate to constitute a guidance program. We need system in guidance, so that as many as possible of the pupils' needs are met. Never should the smaller schools try to duplicate the guidance programs of the larger schools; they should build programs in keeping with their own needs. The system or organization should never become so machinelike that the human values of guidance are lost. All schools, then, regardless of size or type, should think in terms of guidance programs that will bring about the greatest possible total growth in each individual pupil.

GATHERING INFORMATION ABOUT INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS

1.3 *The Need for Information about Pupils*

Effective guidance is predicated upon the fact that the teacher or counselor has in his possession as much pertinent information as possible on each student's needs, potentialities, and problems. Devastating harm may result to the individual student if decisions are made on any other basis. Students may be helped to understand themselves only if the teacher or counselor understands them and is able to interpret his knowledge to them. Moreover, needed changes in students and their environment cannot be made unless those in charge have adequate information about them.

Gathering significant data, then, about the pupil from as many different sources as possible is the first step in effecting a sound approach to guidance.

1.4 *Learning about Pupils through the Interview*

This discussion of the interview is only from the standpoint of the opportunity it affords to gather valuable information about individual students. The counseling aspects of the interview are discussed in Secs. 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3.

One of the recognized functions of the interview is that of gathering facts and information about the individual student and his problems. During an interview, the student will impart information about himself, some of which is needed in his cumulative folder of information. In the initial stages of counseling, it would not be remiss to schedule a fact-finding interview. Certain basic information on each student is needed before any real counseling can take place. It is granted that interviews of this type require considerable time, yet it cannot be denied that the advantages of personal contact between teacher and/or counselor and the individual student are of utmost importance.

The technique of gathering information on individual students by means of the questionnaire is discussed in the following section. It should be remembered that in addition to the usual information gathered by means of the questionnaire, the interview offers the possibility of the student giving much valuable information over and above that asked for in the questionnaire. Much pertinent information can be gathered which might not be gathered otherwise.

1.5 *Learning about Pupils through the Questionnaire*

A carefully devised questionnaire which reflects the purpose of the guidance program of a particular school has proved to be an excellent way of collecting valuable information about students. It serves the needs of a group of students as well as it serves the needs of a single student. Students should be told the purpose of the questionnaire, and every attempt should be made to have them fill it out as thoughtfully as possible. Many of the data given on the questionnaire may eventually be recorded in the student's cumulative record. The initial gathering of data is not enough. Provision should be made for the student to add new information to certain items periodically, in order to keep the record up to date. The questionnaire approach to learning about pupils is particularly well adapted to the secondary school.

Typical material which can be gathered from a questionnaire follows:[1]

INDIVIDUAL RECORD

Name of student_____ Date _____
Address _____ Telephone number_____
Age _____ Sex _____
Name of father_____ Telephone number_____
Address _____
Name of mother_____ Telephone number_____
Address _____
Name of guardian_____ Telephone number_____
Address _____

Occupation of Relatives

Occupation of father_____
Occupation of mother_____
How many brothers do you have?_____ Sisters?_____
Occupations of brothers_____
Occupations of sisters_____

Leisure-time Activities

Do you have a hobby? Yes_____ No_____ What?_____
Do you enjoy reading? Yes_____ No_____ What kinds of books have you read?
Adventure_____ Mystery_____ Western_____ Detective _____
Romantic_____ Historical_____ Scientific _____
What are your favorite magazines?_____
Do you like to take part in athletics? Yes_____ No_____
What are your favorite sports?_____
Do you enjoy going to movies? Yes_____ No_____ What are your favorite movies?
_____

School Subjects and Organizations

What school subjects are most interesting to you?_____
What school subjects are least interesting to you?_____
What school organizations and clubs do you belong to?_____
What offices do you hold or have you held?_____

[1] State Department of Public Instruction. *Guidance for Secondary Schools*, pp. 70–71. Des Moines: State of Iowa, Department of Public Instruction. 1948.

Work Experience

Do you work after school? Yes_____No_____What kind of work do you do?

_____

Do you help your father or mother after school? Yes_____No_____
What kind of work do you do?_____
What jobs have you worked at after school or during vacation?_____

_____

Habits

Do you keep your room neat and straightened up at all times? Yes_____No_____
Do you have regular times to study your lessons? Yes_____No_____ Do you follow your assignments? Yes_____No_____ Do you do your work accurately? Yes_____No_____Do you plan your work? Yes_____No_____

Travel Experiences

What trips have you taken?_____
What did you enjoy most on these trips?_____

Health

Height_____Weight_____Do you have any physical defects? Yes_____No_____
What are they?_____
Do you have headaches often? Yes_____No_____ Do you have earaches? Yes_____No_____ Do you wear glasses? Yes_____No_____ Are you nervous? Yes_____No_____ Do you worry? Yes_____No_____ For what reason?_____

_____

Ambitions

What do you plan to do in the future?_____
Do you prefer directing work? Yes_____No_____ Do you like to work under another's directions? Yes_____No_____ What kind of work appeals to you?
Artistic_____ Literary_____ Social welfare_____ Business_____ Scientific_____
Mechanical_____Construction_____Executive_____ Agriculture_____Law_____
Medical_____Teaching_____Any other_____
Do you prefer mental or physical activity?_____
Which of the following types of work do you prefer? Creative_____
Repetitious _____Varied _____

Occupational Preferences

Which occupation are you most interested in?_____
List other occupations you are interested in_____

_____

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1.6 *Learning about Pupils through Observation*

The alert teacher or counselor watches for incidents of behavior which may well be the signal that a pupil needs guidance and that something is not as it should be. Anecdotal reports describing unusual incidents of behavior while the student participates in a group are exceedingly valuable in guiding pupils. Froehlich and Benson [2] state that the "best single device available for gathering data on this aspect [personal adjustment] is the anecdotal record." The anecdotal record may readily become a part of the student's cumulative record. Anecdotes, or instances of individual behavior, may be jotted down; over a period of time, this record will reveal a personality pattern. Anecdotes are exceedingly valuable because they represent actual behavior under normal circumstances with a normal group. Some schools provide a simple form to be used in making reports on unusual incidents of pupil behavior. Care should be taken to separate the description of the incident from the interpretation given to the cause of the incident. The interpretation should be made by the person who has complete information on the student and the necessary training to ascribe reasons for unusual behavior. Members of the guidance department may help persons making anecdotal reports to file them in such a manner that they will have the greatest value.[3]

It should be remembered that incidents of behavior other than those involving personality traits should be observed and reported. Signs of impaired vision or hearing may indicate impairments serious enough to affect the pupil's entire adjustment to his school program. Observations of pupil behavior should be concerned with any signal displayed by the student which might mean a need for guidance and adjustment.

1.7 *Learning about Pupils through the Autobiography*

In many instances, through the use of the autobiography, students contribute valuable information about themselves which may not be collected by any other method. Giving the student a chance to put

[2] Clifford P. Froehlich and Arthur L. Benson. *Guidance Testing*, p. 41. Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1948.

[3] For an excellent discussion of the use of observation in the counseling process, see Ruth Strang. *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*, pp. 36–62. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1949.

down ideas about himself in his own words may give insights not possible to gain any other way. The autobiography might well be worked out through classes in English or the social studies. Students will not write certain things about themselves unless they know that they will be kept confidential. These assurances must be given to the students at the time the assignment is made.

Without some kind of an outline to follow, a student is likely to omit some phase of his experiences which should be covered. The following outline has been suggested:

1. Early history of the student
2. Family background and history
3. Health and physical record
4. School history
5. Interests, leisure-time activities, hobbies, travel experiences, friendships
6. Occupational experiences
7. Educational plans for the future
8. Long-time vocational plans
9. Desires and plans regarding marriage and home life.[4]

1.8 *Learning about Pupils through the Case Study*

Even though a case study on each pupil would contribute immeasurably to individual guidance, the element of time dictates that such a technique can be used only with those pupils presenting serious problems. The case-study technique consists of an intensive study of the pupil's problem and the reasons behind the problem as well as a proposed program of treatment to effect satisfactory adjustment.

The case study is essentially a cooperative undertaking by those persons who are in a position to contribute information about the pupil and then to sit down around the conference table, analyze the data, and evolve a plan of action. The person directing the study should be the person who is closest to the student and who is in the best position to work with the student in carrying out the proposed program. In many instances this person will be a teacher who has close contact with the student, although it could be a counselor or some other person in the system. Obviously, really serious problems

[4] Los Angeles County Schools. *Guidance Handbook for Secondary Schools,* p. 48. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau. 1948.

should be handled by someone especially trained in case-study techniques.

The number of persons contributing to the case study will depend upon the complexity of the problem. It will also depend upon the size of the school and of the community, which, to some extent, determine the number and caliber of specialized workers available. What information goes into a case study will obviously vary from school to school. Erickson [5] presents the following list of areas of information that might be included:

1. Family background
2. Home and neighborhood environment
3. Early development
4. Academic aptitude
5. Academic achievement
6. Other aptitudes and abilities
7. Interests and disinterests
8. Health record
9. Social behavior
10. Personality and character traits
11. Vocational interests and plans
12. Problems, needs, and frustrations
13. Resources available to the individual
14. Plans for the future
15. Summary of data
16. Therapy attempted

The guidance function with students presenting behavior problems does not end when those participating in the case study have made their prescriptions. All their efforts could easily be nullified unless there were follow-up on the case. The case might need further study and new, different therapy and adjustment. Follow-up practices, obviously, must be an important aspect of the case-study technique.

1.9 *Learning about Pupils from Parents*

To overlook the parent as a source of information in learning about pupils would seriously weaken the program of helping individuals

[5] Clifford E. Erickson. *A Practical Handbook for School Counselors*, p. 39. New York: The Ronald Press Company. 1949.

through guidance. Most parents are anxious for their children to succeed in school. Insights into student problems not possible to get any other way are often gained by information from the parent. Enlisting the cooperation of the parent pays dividends in facilitating a pupil's adjustments through a more thorough and comprehensive understanding of his needs, interests, and abilities. Conferences arranged between parents and teachers or counselors are one of the best ways of getting information. Home visits by teachers and guidance workers also provide an excellent opportunity for getting information; a glimpse into the home itself may add to understanding of the pupil. To know something about the child's experiences beyond the classroom—home, neighborhood, community—is to recognize that the child is the product of all influences with which he comes in contact.

1.10 *Learning about Pupils through Tests*

Tests are tools which serve the guidance function. They help the teacher and guidance worker to know and better understand the strengths, weaknesses, and needs of individual pupils. Tests measure individual differences, which are the heart of the guidance program. Tests, if chosen and used wisely, facilitate self-analysis—one of the primary functions of guidance. They may also indicate needed changes in some aspect of the student's environment.

Obviously, there is much error in the subjective evaluations of pupil abilities and needs. The use of objective tests has eliminated a great deal of this in measuring pupil differences. Objective tests are valuable tools from this standpoint, but it must be remembered that there is much to be learned about pupils which cannot be gathered solely through their use.

Since tests are tools, they should always be used as a means to an end. That end, from the guidance point of view, is facilitating pupil adjustment according to pupil needs. Only those tests for which there is need should be used. Indiscriminate testing, without a purpose, is poor practice.

As indicated above, test scores should never be used as the sole basis for evaluating pupil needs and abilities. They should serve as an adjunct to data received from other sources or to conclusions drawn by the teacher or counselor. Testing is only a segment of the

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total guidance program, and the two terms should never be thought of synonymously. "Guidance is always more than the giving of tests, no matter how extensively or carefully done." [6]

1.11 *How May Tests Be Grouped?*

The principal groupings for tests are:

1. Measures of general intelligence or school aptitude
2. Measures of achievement
3. Measures of interests
4. Measures of special aptitude
5. Measures of personal adjustment

Each of these groupings will be discussed separately with illustrative tests cited.

1.12 *Measures of General Intelligence or Scholastic Aptitude*

When used with discretion, scholastic-aptitude scores serve as one of the factors in giving students educational and vocational guidance. They should never be used as the sole basis for predicting success in college or a vocation but always in conjunction with other test scores and data. Froehlich and Benson [7] state:

> We have recognized the usefulness of scholastic aptitude tests in counseling pupils regarding educational opportunities. Naturally the decisions pupils make regarding the length and content of their formal education will influence the vocational opportunities open to them. The results of scholastic aptitude tests can also be directly useful in counseling pupils regarding their vocational opportunities. Some jobs require a high level of proficiency in reading, writing, speaking, figuring, or other activities typically practiced in school. A pupil's scholastic aptitude is a fair measure of his chances for success in such jobs.

Super [8] gives a word of caution in using school aptitude tests in predicting success in college. He states:

[6] C. C. Ross. *Measurement in Today's Schools* (2d ed.), p. 450. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1947.

[7] Froehlich and Benson, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

[8] Donald E. Super. *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, p. 90. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1949.

Despite the relationships between intelligence and achievement, the correlation between intelligence tests and grades is not especially high. The numerous summaries of the subject show that in high school they tend to range from .30 to .80, and in college from .20 to .70, the modal r's being .40 and .50 in the former and between .30 and .50 in the latter. The relationships are high enough to make them useful in studying groups, but the margin of error when working with individual students is so great as to make considerable caution necessary in test interpretation and to require that the counselor or admissions officer give considerable weight to other indices such as high school marks, family educational achievement (as an indicator of what his intimate social group expects of him), personality adjustment and motivation. None of these, taken by itself, is any more valid than the score of a good intelligence test for predicting college marks, but, taken together, they yield a better prediction than any single index.

Students should be helped to make educational and vocational choices in keeping with their levels of ability. A student should choose, if there are no mitigating circumstances beyond his control, a vocation or profession on the highest level on which it is possible for him to operate. The greatest good will thus come to the individual, and society will receive the greatest return.

Pupils with superior scholastic aptitude should be encouraged to prepare for and enter college. Those without definite plans to attend college should, through counseling, be helped to develop a point of view which will take them into college. Counseling on scholarships and financial aid may also be necessary for this group. We should, at all times, encourage those who have superior scholastic aptitude to continue in college, for it is from this group that leadership in the various professions is developed. Those pupils without sufficient ability to succeed in college should be helped in the selection of a vocation suitable to their levels of ability. It might be well to present concrete evidence to students with superior scholastic aptitude, as well as to those with limited scholastic aptitude, and to their parents, indicating the pupils' chances of doing successful college work.

Pupils with superior scholastic aptitude have greater leeway in the range of possible vocations or professions than do those with average or below-average aptitude. For this reason, they may delay the final selection of a vocation or profession longer. During this delay, as much general training as possible should be provided.

Broad general experiences may serve well as finding and exploratory experiences for such pupils.

There are some courses in the secondary school curriculum which are more abstract than others and naturally require a higher level of scholastic aptitude on the part of the student. Classical, scientific, and highly technical courses fall in this category. Pupils should display sufficient scholastic aptitude before they are guided into experiences of this caliber. Generally speaking, then, a pupil should not choose subjects which require a level of scholastic aptitude beyond his own. It is equally important that superior students avoid subjects not challenging to them, except subjects which are prerequisites to more advanced courses which the students may need and which will challenge their abilities. Such nonchallenging courses might well be enriched by both breadth and depth procedures. A superior student enrolled in a nonchallenging course which is not required should be removed to a course more in keeping with his abilities.

A pupil will probably not continue to follow a given curriculum if he has failed, to any extent, important areas because of limited scholastic aptitude. It should be determined, however, that what seems to be limited scholastic aptitude is not the result of some other underlying factors or qualities affecting the scholastic aptitude of the failing student, which may be normal or above normal. When the real cause for the failure has been determined, the student's counselor should recommend a change in curriculum without delay. New and different subjects may be substituted for those subjects failed previously, and it may be possible to lighten the load enough for the student to do passing work in the remaining ones. By attending summer school or by remaining in school longer, the student may make up deficiencies in credit. The possibility of offering the failing student remedial work in the fundamental skills or the content subjects, either by the regular teacher or in special class, should not be overlooked.

A pupil who is a poor reader may have more scholastic aptitude than his scores indicate. In cases where there is evidence to believe that this is true, a nonlanguage general-intelligence or scholastic-aptitude test should be given. Reading-readiness tests should constitute an important segment in the school's scholastic-aptitude testing program.

At least three tests of scholastic aptitude should be administered

during the course of the elementary and secondary schools. One should be given when the child enters school, one toward the close of the elementary school period, and one late in the junior high school or on entrance into senior high school.

THE TESTING PROGRAM

1.13 *Illustrative Measures of General Intelligence or Scholastic Aptitude*

The following are illustrative tests of this type; the intent of this section is to illustrate and not to provide an exhaustive list of available tests:[9]

Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests by F. Kuhlmann and R. G. Anderson. (6th ed., 1952.) These tests measure scholastic aptitude from kindergarten through grade 12 and maturity. There are separate test booklets for each grade from kindergarten through grade 6, a single booklet for grades 7 and 8, and a single booklet beginning with grade 9 and extending through high school and maturity. The booklets are designated by letters rather than by grade labels. Available from Personnel Press, Inc., Princeton, N.J.

New California Short-form Tests of Mental Maturity by E. T. Sullivan, W. W. Clark and E. W. Tiegs. (1951 ed.). These tests measure scholastic aptitude from kindergarten through maturity. Five booklets are available as follows: preprimary, for kindergarten and grade 1; primary, for grade 1 through grade 3; elementary, for grade 4 through grade 8; intermediate, for grade 7 through grade 10; and advanced, for grade 9 through adulthood. Available from the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.

[9] For a wider selection of tests of various types, consult the test catalogues of the following test publishing concerns: California Test Bureau, Los Angeles; Public School Publishing Company, Bloomingon, Ind.; Science Research Associates, Chicago; Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn.; Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.; World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.; Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif.; C. H. Stoelting Company, Chicago; Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston; The University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minn.; Psychological Corporation, New York; Sheridan Supply Company, Beverly Hills, Calif.; University of Chicago Press, Chicago; Personnel Press, Inc., Princeton, N.J.; and the Bureau of Educational Research and Service, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

SRA Primary Mental Abilities by L. L. Thurstone and T. G. Thurstone. These tests measure basic learning aptitudes in three batteries designed for ages 5–7, 7–11, and 11–17. In the first battery, the learning aptitudes of verbal meaning, quantitative, space, perceptual speed, and motor are measured. In the second battery, verbal meaning, space, reasoning, perception, and number are measured. In the third battery, verbal meaning, space, reasoning, number, and word fluency are measured. Each battery gives a total score which may be converted into a general IQ. Available from Science Research Associates, Chicago.

American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High-school Students by L. L. Thurstone and T. G. Thurstone. A single test booklet giving three different scores: L score, a measure of ability to handle linguistic concepts; Q score, a measure of ability to handle technical or quantitative concepts; G score, the L score and Q score added together. This test is intended for pupils in grade 9 through grade 12. Available from the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.

1.14 *Measures of Achievement*

Measures of achievement are important in that they measure the product of learning. "An achievement or proficiency test is used to ascertain what and how much has been learned or how well a task can be performed: the focus is on evaluation of the past without reference to the future, except for the implicit assumption that acquired skills and knowledge will be useful in their own right in the future." [10] Taking inventory of what has been learned at the end of a training period is good strategy. This is the function which achievement tests perform. Standardized achievement tests sometimes do not measure the goals of the curricular experience as set up by the teacher; this discrepancy should be noted. It must be remembered that there are many worthy outcomes of education which are not built into achievement tests and cannot be so measured. Caution must be practiced so that standardized achievement tests do not force conformity of goals of teaching to a rather limited sampling of test items. That achievement tests have value in guiding the progress of children cannot be questioned. If the tests are constructed to conform with the goals set

[10] Super, *op. cit.*, p. 147.

up, they readily show pupil deficiencies in achievement and point the way for remedial work needed. They likewise reveal the level on which the pupil is operating, which is valuable information for the teacher to have in the guidance of the pupil.

The use of achievement tests having diagnostic values may even be continued on into the secondary school; if students are found there with weaknesses in the basic skills, some provision for remedial measures may be provided. Achievement tests in the content subjects, and trade and vocational courses on the secondary level, have real value. There have appeared, principally on the secondary level, achievement tests which cut across departmental lines and measure achievement in broad areas. Less emphasis is placed on the acquisition of specific items of subject matter learned and more on the ability of the student to apply what he has learned in a variety of situations. An excellent example of this type of test is the group of three achievement tests developed by the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J., in social science, natural science, and mathematics.

Achievement tests also have value as predictors. Super [11] states that "experience has shown that achievement tests not only yield predictions of college averages which are about as good as those provided by intelligence tests, but also give better differential predictions of success in specific subjects than do intelligence tests."

1.15 *Illustrative Measures of Achievement*

Several tests which illustrate this type of measure follow:

Stanford Achievement Tests by T. L. Kelley, G. M. Ruch, and L. M. Terman. These tests are organized in three batteries: primary battery, grades 2 and 3; intermediate battery, grades 4 to 6; advanced battery, grades 7 to 9. Distributed among the batteries according to level are the following subtests: paragraph meaning, word meaning, spelling, arithmetical computation, arithmetical reasoning, language usage, literature, social studies, and elementary science. Published by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 149.

California Achievement Tests by E. W. Tiegs and W. W. Clark. (Formerly Progressive Achievement Tests.) These tests are organized in four batteries and extend from grade 1 through junior college. They measure achievement in reading comprehension, reading vocabulary, arithmetic reasoning, arithmetic fundamentals and language. They have diagnostic value in addition to measuring achievement. Available from the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles.

Cooperative General Achievement Tests by M. Willis, E. Spaney, R. E. Watson, and others. These tests contain three separate test booklets which measure achievement in social studies, natural science, and mathematics. They are designed for use with senior high school students and college freshmen. Available from the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J.

Iowa Every-pupil Tests of Basic Skills by E. F. Lindquist. These tests are organized in two batteries: elementary battery, grades 3 to 5; advanced battery, grades 5 to 9. They measure basic skills in reading, work study, language, and arithmetic. The elementary battery is published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, and the advanced battery is published by Science Research Associates, Chicago.

1.16 *Measures of Interests*

Building learning experiences around expressed or known interests of children has long been considered good educational practice. Likewise, interests, whether expressed, manifested, tested, or inventoried, offer important contributions in the guidance of youth in making educational, vocational, and avocational choices. Interests are important motivating factors and represent an intrinsic approach to motivation. Interest patterns, because of the complexity of the individual, are difficult to analyze; consequently the use of them in the guidance of youth needs implementation.

Interest in an activity or area of experience is not synonymous with satisfactory progress. The factor of aptitude must be taken into consideration, also. Interest without aptitude may lead to frustration. If interest and aptitude are both present, achievement in the task and satisfaction for the student are likely to be present.

It should not be assumed that a person cannot attain success in an

area of experience without interests. A person may apply himself to a task for other reasons. For example, a person who dislikes science may succeed in medical school, perhaps because of the attraction of the financial security and social status one enjoys in a community in the role of a doctor.

1.17 *Stability of Interests in Relationship to Age*

The teacher of elementary school children is readily aware of the fluctuations in many of the interests of children. Skinner [12] illustrates this fluctuation with this statement: "The percentage of girls who wish to become movie actresses drops from 20% at eight years of age to 3% at seventeen; the percentage of boys who wish to become cowboys drops from 38% at eight to zero at sixteen." Most authorities tend to agree, however, that the basic interest pattern of individuals is fairly well stabilized at ages from 15 to 18 years. Strong [13] concludes that "the persistence of interests is due to the fact that the normal person, on the whole, changes very little with the years in his chief characteristics. The interests of boys and girls at 15 years of age are differentiated by the same activities to about the same degree as are the interests of adult men and women." Strong's research on the factor of stability of interests reveals that the correlation of 15-year-olds and 25-year-olds is .57, that it is .66 as compared to 35-year-olds, and that as compared to 55-year-olds it is .89 [14] It should not be inferred that changes in interests do not occur after 18 years of age. There are exceptions. Interests in specific areas may fluctuate to some extent. For example, a person may lose interest in tennis but is unlikely to lose interest in all games. A complete change in basic-interest patterns would be the exception to the rule.

1.18 *How May Interests Be Known and Measured?*

The expression of an interest in some area of experience or some tangible thing is certainly a measure of interest. It has value for the teacher who would like to use known interests in planning learning

[12] Charles E. Skinner. *Educational Psychology*, p. 88. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1945.

[13] Edward K. Strong, Jr. "The Role of Interests in Guidance." *Occupations*. Vol. 27, No. 8 (May, 1949), p. 520.

[14] Edward K. Strong, Jr. *Vocational Interests of Men and Women*, p. 279. Stanford: Stanford University Press. 1943.

experiences. Interest of this type may be gathered through an interview or a personal contact with the student.

Evidence of actual participation in an activity or area of experience could have real meaning as a measure of interest. Super[15] warns: "It is generally appreciated that manifest interests are sometimes the result of interest in the concomitants or by-products of the activity rather than the activity itself." If it is known that a student is participating in an activity or an area of experience because of an interest in the activity itself, then greater significance can be attached to it as a measure of interest.

Tested interests refer to the objective measurement of the amount of information which an individual has acquired about a vocation or area of experience. Super[16] predicts that "the technique will in time probably prove to be generally useful for selection and counseling."

The greatest effort in the measurement of interests has taken place in the development of interest and preference inventories. Through a system of weighting the responses made by the individual to the inventory, a pattern of interests evolves which obviously serves as a much better basis for guidance than any single measure of interest. The two most widely used interest inventories are those developed by Strong and by Kuder.

1.19 *Illustrative Measures of Interests*

Kuder Preference Record by G. F. Kuder. This test measures interests in the following ten general areas: outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical. The test may be scored and percentiles placed on profile sheet by the student. The range of this test is high school and adulthood. Available from Science Research Associates, Chicago.

Vocational Interest Blanks for Men or Women by E. K. Strong, Jr. The test for men measures interests in forty-four specific occupational fields and eleven occupational groupings and includes three special measures known as interest maturity, occupational level, and masculinity-feminity. The test for women measures

[15] Super, *op. cit.*, p. 378.
[16] *Ibid.*, p. 379.

interests in twenty-five specific occupations in addition to a scale on femininity-masculinity. These tests are intended for upper-level senior high school students and adults. Available from the Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif.

1.20 *Measures of Special Aptitude*

The presence of aptitude implies the presence of potential to perform a task or to succeed in a given area. It is important in counseling, that we know about latent potentialities of students. They become a part of the pattern of scores which when combined with data about students collected from other sources, gives a more complete basis for intelligent counseling. Single aptitude scores have importance only when they are considered in relation to all other known facts about a particular student.

The use of measures of specific aptitude should probably proceed on an individual-student basis. Only if a student displays some evidence of special aptitude should an aptitude test in that area or field be given. For example, it would probably be a waste of time to give every member of a group a musical-aptitude test, but it would be appropriate to give such a test to a pupil who displayed some evidence of musical aptitude. Expressed or measured interest in a given area of experience might well serve as the basis for proceeding with aptitude testing.

1.21 *Illustrative Measures of Special Aptitude*

The following are illustrative tests of this type of measure:

SRA Mechanical Aptitudes by Richardson, Bellows, Henry and Co., Inc. These tests are used to measure fundamental aptitudes of tool usage, space visualization, and shop arithmetic in the area of mechanical ability. The tests are used on the high school and adult level. Available from Science Research Associates, Chicago.

SRA Clerical Aptitudes by Richardson, Bellows, Henry and Co., Inc. This test is used to measure basic aptitudes of checking, work measuring, and business arithmetic in the area of clerical ability. It is used on the high school and adult levels. Available from Science Research Associates, Chicago.

Purdue Pegboard by Purdue Research Foundation, Purdue University. This is an apparatus test which measures motor coordination on the high school and adult levels. Available from Science Research Associates, Chicago.

O'Connor Finger and Tweezer Dexterity Tests by J. O'Connor. Two tests of an apparatus nature. They measure motor coordination on the high school and adult levels. Available from C. H. Stoelting Co., Chicago.

Seashore Musical Talents Tests by Carl E. Seashore. These six tests measure pitch, intensity, time, timbre, tonal memory, and rhythm. They are designed for students in grade 5 and up. Available from Carl Fisher, Inc., Chicago.

The Meier Art Tests by Norman C. Meier. These tests measure manual skill, volitional perseveration, and aesthetic intelligence. They are used on the junior high school level and through maturity. Available from the Bureau of Educational Research and Service, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

1.22 *Measures of Personal Adjustment*

The human personality is always complex. When it is complicated still further by the presence of unhealthy feelings, attitudes, and frustrations, measurement in the area of personal adjustment is exceedingly difficult. Because of the important role which personal adjustment plays in determining success and satisfaction for the individual, every attempt should be made to discover pupils with disabling variations, to identify and note the degree of variation, and to provide the therapies necessary to personal adjustment.

Measures of personal adjustment are not tests as we ordinarily think of them; they are inventories of the feelings and attitudes of students toward themselves, other people, and other aspects of their environment.

Personality or adjustment inventories have been devised which ask the student to put down on paper his response to a question. These inventories are of no value to the counselor or teacher unless the student conscientiously and truthfully answers each question. Adjustment inventories have been developed for both elementary and secondary school levels.

In addition to the pencil-and-paper inventories of personal adjust-

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ment, a number of projective techniques have been devised for use in this area of measurement. Extensive training and practice are necessary for the skillful use and interpretation of these techniques. Most public schools do not have personnel trained to use these techniques. See Sec. 6.48 for more information on projective techniques.

1.23 *Illustrative Measures of Personal Adjustment*

Paper-and-pencil inventories illustrative of this type of measure are:

The Adjustment Inventory by Hugh M. Bell. Two separate forms are available, high school and adult. The high school form gives measures on home background, health, social adjustment, and emotional adjustment. The adult form includes an additional measure on interests. They are available from the Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif.

California Test of Personality by L. P. Thorpe, W. W. Clark, and E. W. Tiegs. These tests attempt to measure self-adjustment and social adjustment; they are diagnostic in nature. The following series are provided: primary series for kindergarten through grade 3; elementary series for grade 4 through grade 8; intermediate series for grade 7 through grade 10; secondary series for grade 9 through college; and adult series for adults. They are available from the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles.

The Bernreuter Personality Inventory by R. G. Bernreuter. This inventory provides measures for neuroticism, self-sufficiency, dominance, self-confidence, and solitariness. It is designed for use with adolescents and adults. Available from the Stanford University Press, Stanford, Calif.

1.24 *Developing the Testing Program*

The testing program in a given school should be designed to meet the needs of that particular school. Random and indiscriminate testing is of little value. Testing should extend from the time the pupil enters school until he completes his education. A school system should plan in terms of the total testing program in order to provide the necessary sequence and coordination of the various tests.

Many schools, especially the smaller schools and those found in some rural areas, are without testing programs. Because of the closeness of the teacher in a small school to her pupils the need for testing is probably not so pronounced as it is in larger schools. In no event should any school attempt a testing program unless someone is available who is competent in the selection and administration of tests and in the interpretation and application of the test scores.

If competent personnel in the use of tests is available, schools without programs can start with the use of one or two tests and add others as the need is felt and as the teacher becomes more adept in the selection, administration, and use of tests. Rural schools and small-town schools may receive assistance in the organization of testing programs from county superintendents or from the state department of public instruction.

1.25 *Suggested Minimum Testing Programs*

It should be remembered that the minimum testing programs here presented are suggestive and that the school will need to adapt the programs to local conditions.

1.26 *A Suggested Minimum Testing Program for the Elementary Grades*

1. An intelligence test and a reading-readiness test should be given sometime during the first few weeks of the child's experience in grade 1. Perhaps toward the end of grade 1, a word-recognition test or simple reading test should be given.

2. A simple diagnostic reading test should be given early in the second grade, and an alternate form may be given later in the term.

3. In the third year, a basic-skills battery including reading, arithmetic, and language should be given. Its results will show pupil needs and should tell the teacher where to begin to teach each individual child.

4. In grades 4 to 8, diagnostic information should be obtained early in each year. The tools of learning—reading, arithmetic, and language—should be measured and remedial instruction supplied wherever necessary.

5. The general intelligence of all children should be tested for the

second time somewhere in grade 4, 5, or 6. If no other intelligence test has been given, this should be administered in grade 4.

6. The classroom teacher should have all test scores and should know how to interpret and use them.

1.27 *A Suggested Minimum Testing Program for Secondary Schools*

Since the need for vocational guidance enters the picture as the student progresses through the secondary school, the principal period of testing might be centered in grade 9. The following testing procedures are worthy of consideration on the secondary level:

1. A general intelligence or scholastic-aptitude test should be administered in grade 9.
2. A vocational-interest inventory which measures interest in general fields may well come early in the pupil's secondary school program.
3. Achievement tests having diagnostic value may well be used in the secondary school. Appraisal of pupil progress in content subjects and a continuation of emphasis upon remedial work in the basic skills are important.
4. Measures of special intelligence or aptitude may be used in individual cases. Music, art, and motor coordination illustrate the special aptitudes which should be measured when it appears that there is need on an individual-pupil basis.

1.28 *Useful Criteria in the Selection of Tests*

Successful testing programs are predicated upon the intelligent choice of tests designed to measure what the tester desires to have measured. The selection of a test should start with the careful examination of the test. The items should be examined in detail to make sure that they measure what the tester has in mind. The manual accompanying the test should yield valuable information about the test and what it purports to measure.

The first criterion, then, with which the selector of a test must be concerned is the validity of the test. How well does it measure what it is supposed to measure? In many instances, statistical evidence is given by the maker of the test in the form of validity coefficients.

This means that the test has been checked against some criterion to prove its usefulness. The development of a correlation coefficient always requires two sets of scores from the same group, one of which must be the scores on the test under consideration. Test manuals do not always carry validity coefficients.

The second important criterion in the selection of a test is its reliability. Can it be relied upon to measure consistently? Will two or more forms of the test when used with the same group produce consistent results? The reliability of a test is expressed in statistical terms and is determined by the maker of the test before it is marketed. This information is given in the test manual. Froehlich and Benson [17] state:

> In general, if we wish to use the results with individuals, we should select tests which have reliability coefficients of .85 or better. In selecting achievement or ability tests, we may require that the reliability coefficient be at least .85 for pupils at the same grade level or the group we wish to test; if two or three grades were combined in computing the reliability, we may demand that the coefficients be .90; and if four or five grades were used, about .95.

In commenting on validity and reliability as criteria in the selection of tests, Ross [18] states that "validity is always the first quality to be sought in a test, and, granted that, reliability is a valuable auxiliary. *The ideal test tells the truth consistently.*"

Some other useful criteria in the selection of tests are the following:

1. Can the test be administered with ease?
2. Can the test be scored with ease?
3. Can the test results be interpreted and applied with ease?
4. Is the cost within reason?

1.29 *The Administration of Tests*

The manual of directions accompanying a test gives valuable information on how the test is to be administered. The tester should study this information in advance so that he will have the procedure well in mind. The results of the tests may be negated by slovenly

[17] Froehlich and Benson, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

[18] Ross, *op. cit.*, p. 83.

administration. If the regular classroom teacher has had training and experience in the administration of tests, it would seem best to have him administer the tests. Some person foreign to the students entering the room to administer tests might create tensions which could affect the test results. Moreover, if the regular teacher administers the test, there is the possibility that he will have greater interest in the test results and their application and use in working with students.

Other suggestions for the administration of tests follow:

1. The schedule should be arranged so that no interruptions will occur during the testing. Signs placed on the outside of the door may help.
2. Ample supplies such as testing materials, pencils, and paper should be available.
3. The physical aspects of the room should be such that the students feel no discomfiture. Good seating without crowding, good lighting, proper temperature, and ventilation are important factors to be checked before and during the test. The students' desks should be cleared of materials other than test materials.
4. The administrator should be sure that the directions for marking the test are clear to all students before the test begins, in accordance with directions given in the manual.
5. If several tests are to be given, provision should be made for rest periods between tests.

1.30 *The Scoring of Tests*

The scoring of tests is, for the most part, a purely clerical matter. A few tests, however, require judgments to be made during scoring. Machine scoring of answer sheets assists materially in eliminating error. If the school is without a test-scoring machine, perhaps the state department of public instruction or a nearby college could render this service.

Hand scoring is a tedious job and is subject to error. Perhaps a recheck of a sampling of the answer sheets will determine whether all of the papers scored by a certain scorer need to be rescored. Too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the importance of accuracy in the scoring of tests.

1.31 *Recording Test Scores*

Unless some use is made of test scores in providing guidance for individual pupils, tests should never be given. Obviously, the best place to record the scores is in the student's cumulative record. "The date the test was given, name of test, form used, total scores, and translated (I.Q., percentile, rank) results should be recorded. It is essential that test results be passed on from grade to grade in the cumulative record." [19]

1.32 *The Interpretation and Use of Test Scores*

Since tests should always be regarded as tools, or means to an end, the real test of the value of a testing program comes in the intelligent interpretation and use of test scores in discovering pupil problems. These discoveries serve as the focal point for teaching and guidance.

Test scores acquire meaning only after they have been organized in some usable form. The simplest treatment of them is to rank the students in a group according to scores made on a test. The relative placement of any given student in the group with regard to other members can then be noted. From this grouping, percentile ranks can be computed which may give added meaning to the scores. For example, it might be said of a student who was assigned a percentile rank of 65 on a test that he equals or excels 65 per cent of the pupils in the group in his performance on the test. It should be noted that interpretations of this sort place emphasis upon the relative value of the score and not upon any absolute value.

Norms for test scores may be developed either on local groups or on national groups. Perhaps both have value. The value of local norms lies in the fact that the student is always compared to other students of the same relative grade, educational backgrounds, etc. The composites of any national norm group should be carefully investigated to be sure that the group reflects the same relative grade of students as those of the local group.

A possible weakness in the use of local norms lies in the number of students included in the norm group. Test results collected over a period of years by the local school could, in time, provide norm

[19] Erickson, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

groups of ample size to be of real value. Froehlich and Benson [20] state that "although local norms should be based on at least 100 pupils, confidence in the norms increases with the size of the sample." The size of the sampling on which national norms are based is usually adequate. This information is given in the manual of directions which accompanies the tests.

The discussion on the analysis and interpretation of test results thus far has been of an elementary statistical nature. It should be pointed out, however, that there are many other statistical applications which can be made. They include the development of frequency tables from which measures of central tendency and variability may be computed. Correlations between test scores and other criteria are also a possibility. The extent to which these measures are applied will be determined, to some degree, by the purposes behind the testing program. If the program is of a survey type and encompasses the entire school system, there will be need for the more advanced statistical applications of the results. If the program is for the classroom teacher to use in meeting the needs and differences of her pupils, the more elementary applications will suffice. If the teacher is burdened with many statistical analyses, there is more likelihood that he will lose sight of the real purpose of the program.

In addition to the statistical treatment of test results, graphic portrayal may also facilitate their interpretation and use. The most common type of graphic portrayal is the test profile. Even though the profile takes the teacher's time and there is chance for error in its compilation, it does give a clear picture of the student's relative standing in several separate tests or parts of a test.

Figure 1 shows a test profile which has been developed for use with the California Reading Test, Intermediate Form AA.[21] This profile not only pictures the student in the various reading skills in relation to grade placement but also provides spaces for specific learning difficulties which are revealed by the test. An instrument of this sort can be of real help to the teacher in locating student strengths and weaknesses and in planning school experiences and guidance.

Even though the test profile of Donald Smith as shown in Fig. 1 graphically displays many worth-while facts about Donald and his

[20] Froehlich and Benson, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

[21] Published by California Test Bureau, Los Angeles.

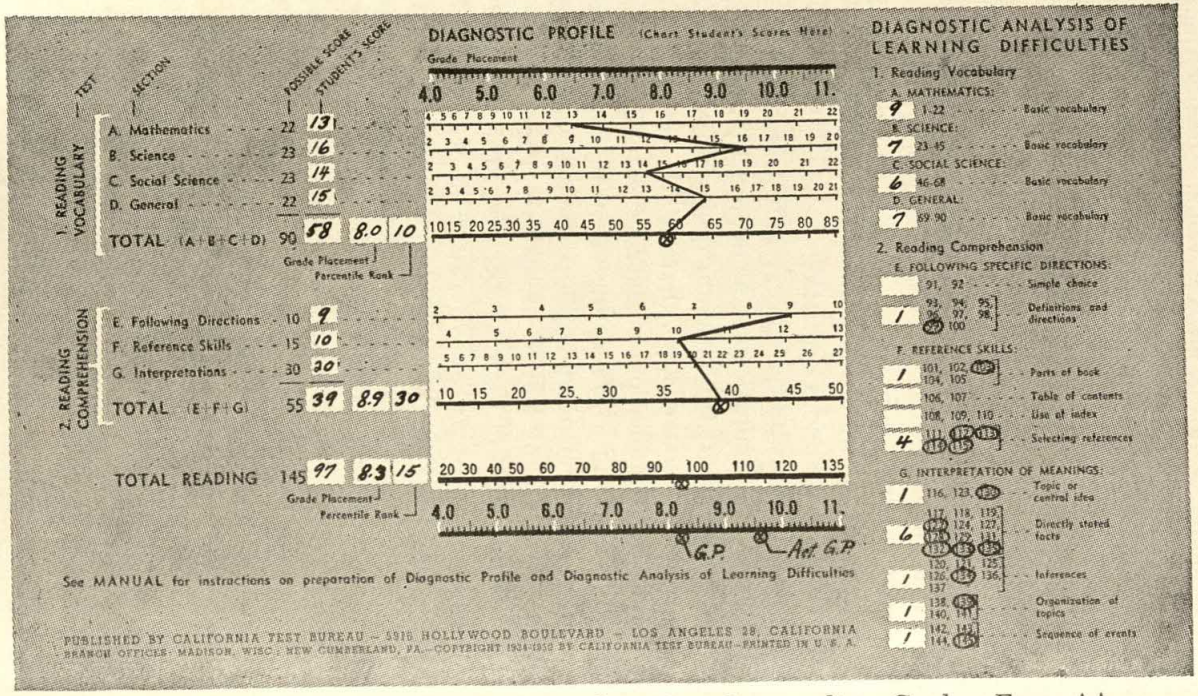

FIG. 1. Test profile for the California Reading Test, Intermediate Grades, Form AA.

progress in reading, it does not tell the whole story. It does show that Donald's achievement in reading as earned on the test is 8.3 and that his actual grade placement is 9.6. It also points up specific areas in which remedial work is needed. The profile does not tell, however, why Donald is not achieving up to standard. Obviously, other evidences must be brought into the picture if Donald's problem is to be solved intelligently. Dr. Ernest W. Tiegs, Editor-in-Chief, California Test Bureau, has submitted additional evidence of much importance in understanding Donald's problem. He states:[22]

If we try to make an interpretation from the data on this profile alone, we might infer that all Donald needs is more work on the fundamental skills of reading. While this always does more or less good, the reasons for this boy's poor showing are more serious. In the first place, he has an I.Q. of 102 on the California Test of Mental Maturity which means that he should do average work and achieve up to norm. However, his language I.Q. is 91 while his non-language I.Q. is 117, suggesting that he has language difficulties. He is very low in Self-Reliance and Feeling of Freedom on the California Test of Personality and on the Occupational Interest Inventory he is low in the Personal-Social area where the use of language is an important factor. His responses on the Thematic Apperception Test show continuous frustration. As you may have guessed before this time, this boy stutters badly. Before much can be done for him, therefore, as many as possible of his conflicts must be resolved.

The valuable lesson learned from Donald's case is that it is always important to have as much information about each individual student as possible and to consider the total pattern of test scores and information before judgments are made and remedial steps taken.

Another useful graphic device readily available to the classroom teacher is the scattergram. This is a graphic picture of the correlation of test scores with some other criterion. Each student is plotted by name on the scattergram according to the relationship between the two items. For example, achievement-test scores could be correlated with aptitude scores. The location of the students on the scattergram reveals those students who are achieving normally relative to their aptitudes as well as those students designated as underachievers and overachievers. Information of this sort, along with other evidences explaining underachievement and overachievement, can be of

[22] Letter dated May 2, 1952, from Ernest W. Tiegs.

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real help to the teacher in planning and carrying out needed guidance for these pupils.

1.33 *Reporting Test Results to Students and Parents*

The extent to which test scores are presented to the student and the parents and the manner in which they are presented vary from school to school. Since these are debatable questions, there is no clear-cut policy at present. Many tests and measuring devices are constructed so that the students score, profile, and interpret the results themselves. A good example of this approach is found in the Kuder Preference Record—an interest inventory. Some schools have worked out self-appraisal programs which entail transmission of the scores of most types of tests to students. Most teachers and counselors agree that pupils should be given information as to their relative position in terms of the area measured rather than exact scores. Adequate explanation of what the scores mean in relation to what they measure should always precede the presentation of information about test scores to students and parents. Since secondary school pupils have reached a degree of maturity, on the whole, more information can be given them on test scores than can be given elementary school pupils. Elementary school pupils, however, might well be told how they performed on a certain test relative to previous testings.

RECORDING INFORMATION ABOUT INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS

1.34 *The Need for a Cumulative Record*

There is little use in collecting information about individual pupils unless this information is recorded systematically and made readily available to those responsible for the guidance of the individual pupil. The *Handbook of Cumulative Records* of the U.S. Office of Education [23] states clearly the need for cumulative records in the following statement:

It is obvious that the individual characteristics and differences of children must be ascertained and recorded before they can be made to serve as a basis upon which meaningful and purposeful learning experi-

[23] National Committee on Cumulative Records. *Handbook of Cumulative Records.* U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 5, 1944, p. 22.

ences for pupils may be planned. Records are essential to a constantly evolving curriculum. Individual differences in the needs, interests, and abilities of pupils, as revealed through participation in the school program, should be recorded. Such differences indicate the nature and amount of guidance needed by individual pupils at various stages of their development.

A cumulative record, then, is a valuable tool in the important task of guiding children. Cumulative records in themselves have no value. They become valuable only when they serve in the guidance of individual pupils.

1.35 *What Are the Characteristics of an Effective Cumulative Record?*

Effective cumulative records have certain characteristics. Traxler [24] lists the essential characteristics of a good record as follows:

1. The cumulative record should grow directly out of the objectives of the school in which it is used.
2. The cumulative record should bring together and summarize all kinds of information about the individual which are needed in counseling.
3. The form should be planned in such a way that it is intrinsically a growth record.
4. The record should consist largely of objective data and of summary statements interpreting these data.
5. Since the cumulative record is seldom, if ever, a form for original entry, a variety of forms on which original data are entered by teacher, counselor, school psychologist, and others needs to be related to the main form.
6. Some cumulative records are planned to serve as file folders as well as record forms, but as far as possible the main items of information should be written on the card itself.
7. Every cumulative record should be accompanied by a carefully prepared manual of directions.

Any good cumulative record should tell a story of the child's growth and development in relation to the goals and objectives of the school's educational program. Cumulative records should never

[24] Arthur E. Traxler. "The Cumulative Record in the Guidance Program." *The School Review*. Vol. 54, No. 3 (March, 1946), pp. 156–157.

become so unwieldy and complex that they are a burden rather than an asset in guiding pupils. Too often, cumulative records make glorified clerks of teachers and guidance workers. The records must be so planned that there is a minimum of clerical work which can be simply and readily done.

1.36 *What Information Is Usually Included in the Cumulative Record?*

The material contained in the cumulative record will vary from school to school. Factors such as size of school, type of school organization, and guidance personnel available will influence the selection and range of items included. Classified by broad categories, the items recommended by the National Committee on Cumulative Records are as follows:

Personal

1. Name
2. Date of birth
3. Evidence of birth
4. Place of birth
5. Sex
6. Color or race
7. Residence of pupil and/or parents

Home and community

1. Names of parents or guardians
2. Occupation of parents or guardians
3. Whether parents are alive or deceased
4. Ratings of home environment and/or economic status
5. With whom pupil lives
6. Birthplace of parents
7. Language spoken in home
8. Marital status of parents
9. Number of siblings, older and younger

Scholarship

1. School marks by years and subjects
2. Special reports on failures
3. Record of reading
4. Rank in graduating class (with number in class)

Test scores and ratings

1. General intelligence-test scores
2. Achievement-test scores
3. Other test scores
4. Personality ratings

School attendance

1. Days present or absent each year
2. Record of schools attended, with dates

Health

The following types of items are desirable if a school has a health program in which physicians and nurses are a part:

1. Complete health record, to be filled in by physician or nurse
2. Record of physical disabilities
3. Vaccination record
4. Disease census

If a physician or nurse is not available for examining school children, a rating of the health of pupils may be made by the teachers, the type of rating depending upon the extent of the teachers' education in health matters.

Anecdotal records

If an anecdotal-records system is to be used, a special form should be developed. Anecdotal reports may be kept easily if filed in a folding type of cumulative record or where records are kept in envelopes.

Miscellaneous

1. Employment record during school years
2. Vocational plans
3. Counselor's notes
4. Extracurricular activities
5. Follow-up record after leaving school (employment and further education)
6. Space for notations by teachers and others.[25]

[25] *Handbook of Cumulative Records,* pp. 8–9.

1.37 *Continuity of Cumulative Records*

Cumulative records, in order to serve the needs of the individual pupil, should begin when the pupil enters school and should gather information continuously about the student—his achievement, his needs, and his anticipated plans—until he has left the sphere of influence of the school. Follow-up information on the student for a time after his graduation or departure should become an integral part of the record. No segment of the pupil's educational journey should be omitted from the record. The record should follow the student from level to level within a school and from school to school as he continues his progress. Justifiable criticism of cumulative-record systems in the past has been that each unit of the school had to start from scratch in developing its own file on each student. The guidance function of orienting and adjusting the pupil to a new type and level of learning experience can be greatly facilitated if the cumulative record developed in the sending school follows the pupil to his new school.

1.38 *Where Should the Cumulative Record Be Kept?*

There can be no one definite answer to this question as the variations among schools in organization and personnel are great. Pupil records should be accessible to those who are charged with pupil counseling and guidance. The elementary school child's record will undoubtedly be in the possession of his regular teacher or of a counselor, if the school has one. The secondary school pupil's cumulative record should be in his home-room, if the school has a home-room organization and the home-room teacher is responsible for his guidance. However, if the school uses the faculty-adviser plan or employs specially trained counselors, the records should probably be filed with them. It is a known fact that if records are not easily available, or if they are filed in the principal's office—unless the principal is the guidance officer—the busy teacher or counselor does not have time to go to refer to them. Teachers and counselors need to add new information from time to time; records must be accessible to permit this. Cumulative records must serve a function; that function is to give the counselor or teacher information about the student

and his needs, making it possible for them to assist the student in making new adjustments.

1.39 *In What Form Should the Cumulative Record Appear?*

The cumulative-record form used by a given school system should reflect that school's educational goals in terms of guiding the development of individual pupils. There are two ways in which records may be obtained; commercially prepared forms may be purchased or the school may develop its own forms. Commercially prepared forms give the school a starting point in the development of its own system of records. Many schools purchase such forms and then supplement with additional forms or materials which adjust the system to local needs. A school would not necessarily need to use all of the sections found on commercially prepared forms, only those sections for which there is a particular need. Locally constructed forms offer an excellent opportunity for the teachers to discover what the school is attempting to accomplish through guidance; they can then build forms to meet the needs. If the group of teachers and guidance people study concertedly on the problem and create a system of records, there is no doubt that these forms, despite inadequacies, will motivate teachers to use them more successfully than would commercially prepared forms.

Cumulative records may be classified into the following three principal types: (1) the folder or packet, (2) the single-card record, and (3) the cumulative folder.

1.40 *The Packet or Folder Type of Record*

The packet or folder type may vary in size from 4 by 6 inches to full letter size. The principle involved in this type of record centers around the plan of filing cards or records, either printed or mimeographed, in a single folder. The Baltimore public schools have developed what they call the Baltimore Packet. The four by six card is the unit for this record. The size is advantageous in that it takes considerably less filing space than the larger folder. The packet idea, regardless of the size of the packet, is exceedingly flexible in that various types of information about the pupil may be inserted into the record at various times during his education. If the various forms are proc-

essed on stock of various colors, color dynamics will help the teacher or counselor readily to identify the needed material. Revision of the various forms is facilitated, since only a part of the record needs to be revised at any one time. This is a distinct advantage over the cumulative folder or card on which revision would mean disruption of the total record. The packet type of record makes no provision for recording pupil data on the folder or packet other than the pupil's name. Figures 2 to 13 illustrate some of the forms which may be included in this type of cumulative record.

1.41 *The Single-card Type of Record*

This type provides for a single card; the data is recorded on both sides. An additional folder for each pupil, for filing additional information would probably be needed if the single card type of record is used. Figures 14 and 15 illustrate this type of record.

1.42 *The Cumulative-record Folder*

This form of cumulative record is most widely used. Pupil data are usually recorded on both sides of the folder in specially prepared blanks. Since it is a folder, it may also be used to hold additional information about the pupil. This type of record folder is readily available from commercial concerns, or it may be developed by a local school system to meet its specific needs. Commercially prepared folders of this type may be supplemented with additional forms to meet the needs of the local school. The American Council on Education has done extensive research on the development of this type of record for the various levels of the school system. Separate folders have been developed for (1) grades 1 to 3, (2) grades 4 to 6, (3) junior and senior high school, and (4) college. These folders may be purchased from the American Council on Education, Washington, D.C. The chief criticism of this type of folder is that each unit of the school system must develop its own cumulative record. This breaks the continuity of the pupil's record. Figures 16 and 17 illustrate this type of record.

Figures 18 and 19 illustrate a commercially produced cumulative-record folder which serves the needs of the student through the elementary and secondary school years. It may be purchased from the Klipto Loose Leaf Company, Mason City, Iowa. There are numerous cumulative-record folders of this type on the market.

PUPIL'S RECORD

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, BALTIMORE, MARYLAND

To be kept for every pupil and to follow him from teacher to teacher and by mail from school to school. Every change of record must be entered on this and on the Principal's Register Card. This card is to be retained as a permanent record of the schools. In case of re-entry, this card is to be revived.

NAME ..... (Last) ..... (First) ..... (Middle) .....

Date of birth (Yr.-mo.-da.) | Country of birth | Sex..... White or Colored.....

Began going to school:

If in kindergarten — date.....

If in elementary school — date.....

State ..... City .....

Admitted to or withdrawn from:

Sch. No.	Date	How*

Parent or Guardian

Name.....

Occupation.....

Father's Nativity.....

Address .....

Mother's Nativity. .....

Last residence

Any pupil permanently withdrawn, upon returning during the same scholastic year, must re-enter the school last attended. *Sources and causes as given on reports.

This card is a unit of the Baltimore Packet System G-19 600190 45

FIG. 2. Obverse side of pupil's record card. Baltimore Packet. (Card is light brown, size 4″ x 6″.)

School No.	Date	To Grade	Class'n X,Y,or Z	SCHOLARSHIP																	Attend days	Teacher initials
				Gen'l	Read	Spel	Wri	Oral Com	Wr Com	Lang Gram	Arit	Geo	Hist Civ	Hyg P E	Mus	Dr'w	M.T.	Clo	Cook			

FIG. 3. Reverse side of pupil's record card. Baltimore Packet.

TESTS

Name _____ Date of Birth _____
Last First

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Date Tested	School No.	Grade When Tested	*Name of Test	Form	Raw Score	Chronological Age	Test Age	Quotient	Percentile Rank In Group II	†Description of Group	‡Rank By Teacher

*Abbreviate but be specific.
†E.G. "1500 7B Pupils Balto. J.H.S., Largely Foreign:" etc.
‡Denominator=Number in Class: Numerator=Rank in Class.

(Over)

Baltimore Test Record Card. A Unit of the Baltimore Packet System designed at the Bureau of Research

FIG. 4. Obverse side of test card. Baltimore Packet. (Card is buff, size 4″ x 6″.)

TESTS
CONTINUED

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Date Tested	School No.	Grade When Tested	*Name of Test	Form	Raw Score	Chronological Age	Test Age	Quotient	Percentile Rank In Group II	†Description of Group	‡Rank By Teacher

FIG. 5. Reverse side of test card. Baltimore Packet.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE
Elementary School

VG-1-1 606001 45

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Baltimore, Maryland
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Elem. School
Date
Grade

Name
Last First Initial

Address Telephone

Date of birth Place of birth

Date of entry into public schools Grade (Parochial or out of city)

Special abilities and interests

Disabilities (physical, educational, social)

Do you expect to attend Junior High School? Occupational School? Vocational School?

SCHOLARSHIP

GRADE	SCHOL.	GRADE	SCHOL.	GRADE	SCHOL.
Kdg.		2B		4A	
1C		2A		5B	
1B		3B		5A	
1A		3A		6B	
2C		4B		6A	

Attendance: regular irregular

Cause:

GRADES ACCELERATED	GRADES RETARDED

Record for aptitude test—Yes No

STANDARDIZED TEST RESULTS
ACHIEVEMENT, INTELLIGENCE (I. Q.), APTITUDE

Grade Test'd	Date	Name of Test	Results

FIG. 6. Obverse side of elementary school vocational-guidance card. Baltimore Packet. (Card is white, size 4″ x 6″.)

SOCIAL INFORMATION

NAME	PLACE OF BIRTH	OCCUPATION
Father		
Mother (Maiden)		
Guardian		

Total number of children in family

BROTHERS AND SISTERS IN THE FAMILY (AT HOME)

NAME	OCCUPATION	AGE	EDUCATION	NAME	OCCUPATION	AGE	EDUCATION

Language spoken in the home:

HOME VISIT

Person interviewed:
Attitude of parents toward school:
Do parents spoil and protect child?
Which, if either, parent is antagonistic to child?
Kind of future education desired for child:
Remarks:

Type of home
No. of rooms
Condition
Furnishings
Equipment
Impression of home
Type of home neighborhood
Additional people in home

Counselor Date

FIG. 7. Reverse side of elementary school vocational-guidance card. Baltimore Packet.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE
Junior High School

7		8		9	
B	A	B	A	B	A

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Baltimore, Maryland
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

J. H. S. _____
Date _____
_____
Course _____

NAME _____ Date of (grad. leaving) _____
Last *First* *Initial*

Address _____ Telephone _____

Date of birth _____ Place of birth _____

What subjects do you like best? _____

Do you take part in music, dramatics, athletics, or other school activities? _____

Do you hold any office? _____

Are you studying along any special line outside of school? _____

What do you like to do best in your leisure time? _____

Have you had any working experience? If so, please fill in space below

Type of work	*Time*	*Money Earned*	*Did you like the work?*

VG-1 606000 40

FIG. 8. Obverse side of junior high school vocational-guidance card. Baltimore Packet. (Card is blue, size 4″ x 6″.)

Name two or three occupations in which you are interested _____

Do you expect to graduate from Junior High School? _____

Do you expect to attend Senior High School? Vocational School? Printing School?

SOCIAL INFORMATION

NAME	PLACE OF BIRTH	OCCUPATION
Father		
Mother		
Guardian		

Occupations of other members of family _____

Number and ages of other children _____

Remarks _____

FIG. 9. Reverse side of junior high school vocational-guidance card. Baltimore Packet.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE
Senior High School

10		11		12	
1	2	1	2	1	2

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Baltimore, Maryland
VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

S.H.S. .....
Date .....
.....
Course. .....
Date of (grad. leaving)

Name _____
LAST FIRST INITIAL

Address _____ Telephone _____

Date of Birth _____ Place of Birth _____

Subjects preferred _____ Major { Music / Drawing

Do you take part in any school activities?

(Name)

Do you hold any office?

Do you take part in any outside activities?

(Name)

What do you like to do in your leisure time?

Have you had any working experience? If so, fill in spaces below.

Type of work	Time	Money earned	Did you like the work?

VG. 2 606020 40

FIG. 10. Obverse side of senior high school vocational-guidance card. Baltimore Packet. (Card is pink, size 4″ x 6″.)

Name two or three occupations in which you are interested:

Do you expect to graduate from Senior High School?

Are you planning for further education? Where?

Parents' preference for your occupation

Character Qualities	19. . . . 19. . . . VI	I	A	C	S
Conduct					
General Appearance					
Initiative					
Reliability					
Co-operation					
Promptness					
Perseverance					

Teachers names:

SUMMARY OF SUBJECTS TAKEN

	Yrs.		Yrs.		Yrs.
Biology		French		Office Practice	
Bookkeeping		German		Physics	
Chemistry		History		Physical Education	
Commercial Geography		Home Economics		Salesmanship	
Commercial Law		Latin		Shop	
Drawing		Mathematics		Stenography	
Economics		Mechanical Drawing		Spanish	
English		Music		Typewriting	

KEY – VI, very inferior; I, inferior; A, average; G, good; S, superior.

FIG. 11. Reverse side of senior high school vocational-guidance card. Baltimore Packet.

BALTIMORE CITY HEALTH DEPARTMENT
BUREAU OF SCHOOL HYGIENE

HEALTH RECORD OF SCHOOL CHILD

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH	SEX	COLOR
ADDRESSES		SCHOOL	GRADE

	CODE	DATE	CODE	DATE	CODE	DATE	CODE	DATE
GEN. APPEARANCE								
NOSE AND THROAT								
TEETH								
NERVOUS DISEASES								
ORTHOPEDIC								
SKIN								
HAIR								
HEART								
OTHER DEFECTS								
VISION WITHOUT GLASSES	R.	L.	R.	L.	R.	L.	R.	L.
VISION WITH GLASSES	R.	L.	R.	L.	R.	L.	R.	L.
EARS	R.	L.	R.	L.	R.	L.	R.	L.
DATE								
HEIGHT								
WEIGHT								
ZONE								

CODE: O = NORMAL; X = DEFECT; C = CORRECTION COMPLETED

DATE	MEDICAL FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS; NURSES' NOTES	SIG.

SH 27A

FIG. 12. Obverse side of health record card. Baltimore Packet. (Card is yellow, size 6″ x 8″. When folded it becomes 4″ x 6″ and fits into packet.)

SYMPTOMS OBSERVED BY TEACHER

	GRADES										
CHECK ONLY IF DEFECT IS PRESENT											
GENERAL APPEARANCE—UNHEALTHY											
THIN OR FAT											
EYES—INFLAMED LIDS											
SQUINTING, INABILITY TO SEE BOARD											
FREQUENT HEADACHES											
EARS—DISCHARGE											
EARACHE											
FAILURE TO HEAR QUESTIONS											
NOSE AND THROAT—MOUTH BREATHING											
FREQUENT SORE THROATS, COLDS											
TEETH—UNCLEAN											
CARIES OR TOOTHACHES											
NERVOUS SYSTEM—SPEECH DEFECT											
POOR MUSCLE COORDINATION											
EMOTIONAL DISTURBANCES											
TWITCHING MOVEMENTS											
UNDUE RESTLESSNESS											
EXCESSIVE USE OF LAVATORY											
IRRITABLE											
POOR HEALTH HABITS—FOOD											
SLEEP											
CLEANLINESS—SKIN											
HAIR											
MENTALITY											
ESTIMATE											
DAYS ABSENT FOR ILLNESS—COLDS											
STOMACH UPSET											
OTHER CAUSES											

NOTE: THIS FORM IS TO BE RETAINED BY CLASSROOM TEACHER IN THE PUPIL'S SCHOLASTIC PACKET.

TEACHER'S COMMENTS:

FIG. 13. Reverse side of health record card. Baltimore Packet.

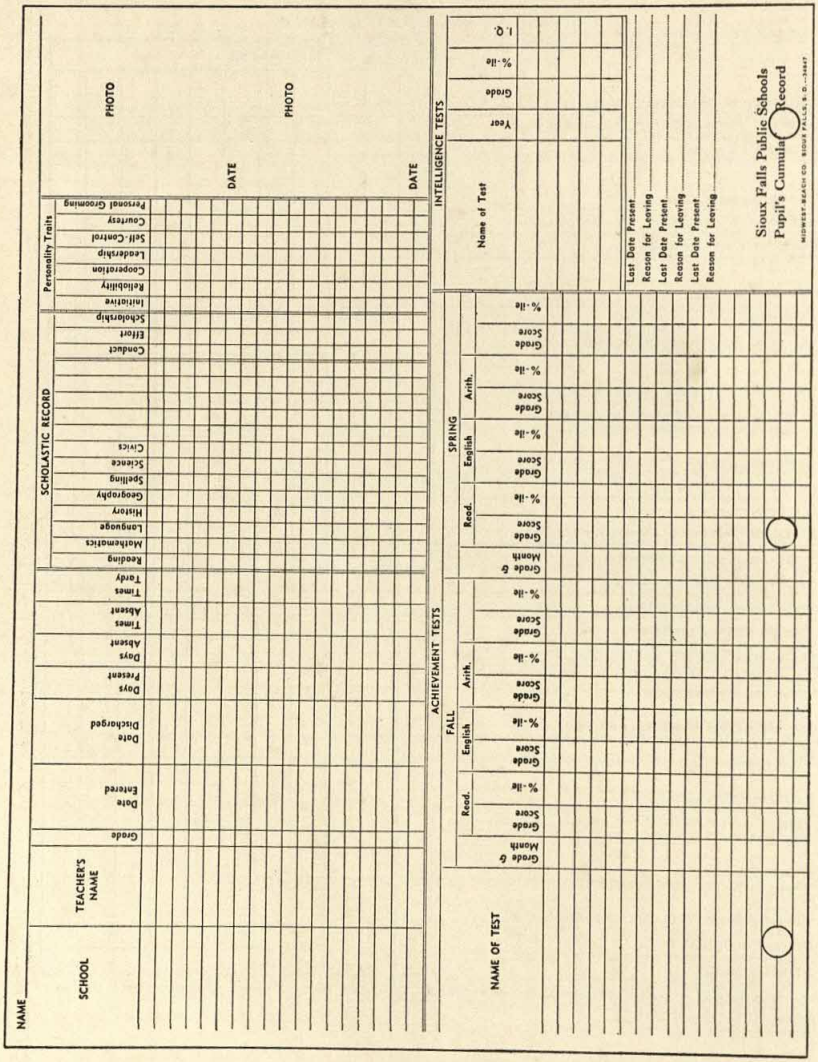

FIG. 14. Obverse side of single-card type of record. Sioux Falls, S.D., public schools. (The card is punched so that it may be filed in either a loose-leaf binder or a filing cabinet, size 8½″ x 11″.)

NAME (last) _____ (first) _____ (middle) _____ SEX _____
TELEPHONE _____
ADDRESS _____

BIRTH DATE (year) _____ (month) _____ (day) _____ BIRTH CERTIFICATE PRESENTED? _____
BIRTH PLACE (City) _____ (County) _____ (State) _____
FATHER'S NAME _____ BIRTH PLACE _____
ADDRESS _____
IF DECEASED, WHAT YEAR? _____
MOTHER'S MAIDEN NAME _____ BIRTH PLACE _____
PRESENT NAME _____
MOTHER'S ADDRESS _____
IF DECEASED, WHAT YEAR? _____
BOTH PARENTS LIVING BUT NOT TOGETHER. EXPLAIN _____

IF EITHER PARENT IS STEPPARENT, WHICH? _____ NAME _____
ADDRESS _____
IF YOU DO NOT LIVE WITH PARENTS OR STEPPARENTS, WITH WHOM DO YOU LIVE?
NAME _____ RELATIONSHIP _____

OCCUPATION OF FATHER OR GUARDIAN _____

FOR WHOM DOES FATHER OR GUARDIAN WORK? _____

IF MOTHER ALSO WORKS, WHERE? _____

SISTERS, NUMBER OLDER _____ YOUNGER _____ BROTHERS, OLDER _____ YOUNGER _____
TOTAL NUMBER LIVING TOGETHER AS A FAMILY UNIT _____
CHURCH PREFERENCE _____ DO YOU ATTEND SUNDAY SCHOOL OR CHURCH REGULARLY? _____
PHYSICAL DEFECTS OR CONDITIONS WHICH SHOULD BE CALLED TO THE ATTENTION OF THE TEACHER

HOME ENVIRONMENT. Economic condition, attitude of parents, etc. (To be filled in by the teacher when she has pertinent information through home visitation or other means)

SPECIAL ABILITIES OR INTERESTS _____

WHAT WOULD YOU LIKE TO DO AS YOUR LIFE WORK? GRADE 7 _____ 8 _____ 9 _____
WORK DURING THE PAST SUMMER. GRADE 4 _____ 5 _____ 6 _____ 7 _____
8 _____ 9 _____
DISCIPLINARY ACTION REFERRED TO OFFICE (dates) _____

OTHER _____

FIG. 15. Reverse side of single-card type of record. Sioux Falls, S.D., public schools.

LAST NAME	FIRST	MIDDLE	NICKNAME	RELIGION	DATE AND PLACE OF BIRTH	SEX (M F)	COLOR (W C Y)

ADDRESS AND TELEPHONE

PHOTOS (Dated)

PREVIOUS SCHOOL RECORD: Names and Types of Schools Attended, Achievement in Subjects and Activities, School Difficulties Encountered, Summary of Test Results

PHOTOS (Dated)

Name and Type of School Attended						
COUNSELOR						
AGE (As of Sept. 1)						
SCHOOL YEAR AND GRADE						

ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT — These columns are for analyses of development in fields indicated. Headings might include work habits, ability to think logically, mastery of technique, oral and written communication and some estimate of achievement

English Lang.

Social Sci.

Other Subjects

INTERPRETATION OF TEST RECORD AND ITS RELATION TO ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT (In the interpretation of test scores consider differences in norms used. In transferring records indicate basis of norms.)						
ATTENDANCE (Reasons if irregular)						
	SIGNIFICANT ACTIVITIES AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS THAT GIVE EVIDENCE REGARDING INTERESTS AND POWERS					
INTERESTS REPORTED BY STUDENT						
EXPERIENCES IN SCHOOL						
OUT OF SCHOOL AND SUMMER EXPERIENCES						
	NOTE TYPE, DURATION, HOURS PER WEEK, EARNINGS AND OTHER SIGNIFICANT FACTS					
WORK EXPERIENCES						
FINANCIAL AID (Type and Amount)						
Educational and Occupational Plans By: Pupil						
Parents						
Counselor						
HEALTH AND PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS (Vigor or lassitude; assets, disabilities or limitations)						
DISCIPLINE: Academic						
DISCIPLINE: Personal						

FIG. 16. Obverse side (inside) of cumulative-record folder for junior and senior high schools. American Council on Education. (Size 11¾″ x 18″. When folded it becomes 9¼″ x 12″.)

Family		Type of Occupation	Education Degree and Kind	Religion
Father				
Mother				
Step Parent or Guardian				
Siblings	Sex			Birthdate

NOTE SIGNIFICANT ITEMS: Health, decease of either parent, birthplace, citizenship, changes in type of occupation of parents, language spoken, type of community, study conditions or other factors such as "broken home".

DESCRIPTION OF BEHAVIOR (Made by all those who have had sufficient opportunity to observe the pupil.)

Key to persons making the descriptions below: Ad–Advisor, Ag–Agriculture, Ar–Arts, D–Dramatics, E–English, F–French, G–German, HR–Home Room Teacher, HE–Home Economics, L–Latin, M–Mathematics, Mu–Music, NS–Natural Science, SS–Social Science, Others.

RESPONSIBILITY	**Responsible and Resourceful:** Carries Through Whatever is Undertaken, and Also Shows Initiative and Versatility in Accomplishing and Enlarging Upon Undertakings						
	Conscientious: Completes Without External Compulsion Whatever is Assigned But is Unlikely to Enlarge the Scope of Assignments.						
	Generally Dependable: Usually Carries Through Undertakings, Self-Assumed or Assigned by Others Requiring Only Occasional Reminder or Compulsion						
	Selectively Dependable: Shows High Persistence in Undertakings in Which There is Particular Interest But is Less Likely to Carry Through Other Assignments						
	Unreliable: Can Be Relied Upon to Complete Undertakings Only When They Are of Moderate Duration or Difficulty and Then Only With Much Prodding and Supervision						
	Irresponsible: Cannot Be Relied Upon to Complete Any Undertakings Even When Constantly Prodded and Guided						
CREATIVENESS	**General:** Approaches Whatever He Does With Active Imagination and Originality, So That He Contributes Something That is His Own.						
	Specific: Makes Distinctly Original and Significant Contributions in One or More Fields.						
	Promising: Shows a Degree of Creativeness That Indicates the Likelihood of Valuable Original Contribution in Some Field, Although the Contributions Already Made Have Not Proved to Be Particularly Significant.						
	Limited: Shows the Desire to Contribute His Own Thinking and Expression to Situations, But His Degree of Imagination and Originality is Not, in General, High Enough to Have Much Influence on His Accomplishments						
	Initiative: Makes Little or No Creative Contributions, Yet Shows Sufficient Imagination to See the Implications in the Creation of Others and to Make Use of Their Ideas or Accomplishments.						
	Unimaginative: Has Given Practically No Evidence of Originality or Creativeness in Imagination or Action.						
INFLUENCE	**Controlling:** His Influence Habitually Shapes the Opinions, Activities, or Ideals of His Associates						
	Contributing Influence: His Influence, While Not Controlling Strongly Affects the Opinions, Activities, or Ideals of His Associates.						
	Varying: His Influence Varies, Having Force When Particular Ability, Skill, Experience or Circumstance Gives it Opportunity or Value						
	Co-Operating: Has No Very Definite Influence on His Associates, But Contributes to Group Thinking and Action Because of Some Discrimination in Regard to Ideas and Leaders.						

SERIOUS PURPOSE						
Unev[illegible] Consistent W[illegible] Purpose.						
Limited: Makes Plans and Shows Determination in Attacking Short Time Projects That Interest Him But Has Not Yet Thought Out Goals for Himself.						
Potential: Takes Things as They Come, Meeting Situations Somewhat on the Spur of the Moment Yet May Be Capable of Serious Purpose if Once Aroused						
Vacillating: Makes Plans That Are Fairly Definite, But Cannot Be Counted on For the Determination to Carry Them Through						
Vague: Is Likely to Drift Without the Decisiveness and Persistence That Will Enable Him to Carry Out His Vague Conceived Plans.						

GRADE						
EMOTIONAL STABILITY — Describe Typical Behavior and Significant Variation in it With Respect to Such Factors as Apathy, Excitability, Over-Sensitiveness, Stability						
Additional Comments About Behavior						
Tentative Synthesis and Suggestions for Guidance Made During, or at Close of, Each School Year						

NOTES:

POST SCHOOL AND FOLLOW-UP INFORMATION

College	Dates
Other Schools	
Work	
Marriage	
Civic Activities	

1941 Revision of American Council on Education Cumulative Record Card for Junior and Senior High Schools, Washington, D. C.

DEMOCRAT PRINTING COMPANY MADISON, WISCONSIN

FIG. 17. Reverse side (outside) of cumulative-record folder for junior and senior high schools. American Council on Education.

Name (Last) (First) (Middle) (Nickname) | Sex M. F. | Color W. C. Y. | Date of birth

Residence | Phone No. | Place of birth

Date entered school | Authority for birth date

Date entered from outside school | From where | Date entered 9th grade

Graduation date | Rank in class | No. in class | Course completed | Date leaving school if not grad. | Cause:

Photograph H. S.

FAMILY	OCCUPATION	EDUCATION	BIRTHPLACE
Father			
Mother			
Step Parent or Guardian			

Language spoken in home | Religion

Parents Divorced | Mother Dead | Date Taken | Age

Parents Separated | Father Dead | Economic Status

No. of brothers Older ( ) Younger ( ) | No. of sisters Older ( ) Younger ( )

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL RECORD

Year									
SUBJECTS	K	Gr	Gr.	Gr.	Gr.	Gr.	Gr.	Gr.	Gr..
Alt. Arithmetic									
Gen. Sci.									
Science: Hygiene									
Arts & Crafts: Ind. Arts.									
Art									
Music									
Promoted (Pr)									
Retained (Ret)									
Days Present									
Days Absent									
Times Tardy									
No. of days in school year									
Photograph (Grade) — School and Teacher									

SECONDARY SCHOOL RECORD

Year		Grade		
Wks. in school yr.	Hrs. per Wk.	Marks 1st	Marks 2nd	Units
Subjects				
Units for year				
Days absent				

Year		Grade		
Wks. in school yr.	Hrs. per Wk.	Marks 1st	Marks 2nd	Units
Days absent				
Units for year				
Units to date				

(The above two blocks are repeated in each of the three columns of the Secondary School Record.)

Grading system:

Remarks:

APTITUDE AND INTELLIGENCE TEST DATA

School	Date	Grade	Name of Test	Form	Scoop	M. A.	C. A.	I. Q. or P. L. R.

EDUCATIONAL TEST DATA

School	Date	Grade	Name of Test	Form	Score	Stand. Norm	C. A.	Rank

EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITY RECORD

Activity	Date	Position	Notable Accomplishments (Offices held, Awards in contests, Athletics)	Credit

PUPIL'S EMPLOYMENT (Part-time and Vacation)

Kind of Work	Date	Part-time (check)	Vacation (check)	Average Weekly Wage	Hours Per Week	Remarks

TRAIT RATING

	(ELEMENTARY)																			HIGH SCHOOL										
Grade																														
Courtesy																														
Dependability																														
Personal Appearance																														
Respect for Property																														
Attitude toward work																														

Code: O Outstanding S Satisfactory U Unsatisfactory I Improving

FIG. 18. Obverse side (outside) of cumulative-record folder which is continuous through the elementary and secondary school period.

HEALTH RECORD

Grade	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		9	10	11	12
Date														
Height (In Inches)														
Weight														
Vision R														
Vision L														
Gums														
Throat														
Tonsils														
Nose														
Adenoids														
Skin														
Nutrition														
Feet														
Physician														
Nurse														

CODE: 0 Normal OO Corrected X Observation XX Needs Attention XXX Needs Immediate Attention.
Circle the X, XX, XXX when condition is corrected.
Throat: — Tonsils removed + Normal tonsils 1 Abnormal condition

REMARKS

Previous Diseases	Date
Measles	
Mumps	
Whooping Cough	
Scarlet Fever	
Diphtheria	
Poliomyelitis	
Operations	
Diagnostic Tests	Date

Mantoux	Pos.	Neg.	
Schick			
Dick			

Protective Treatment	Date
Typhoid Immunization	
Diphtheria Immunization	
Scarlet Fever Immunization	
Smallpox Vaccination	
Family Doctor	

TRANSPORTATION DATA

Twp. No.	Home No.	Home Twp. or Dist.	Distance from School (Hard Surface) (Gravel) (Dirt)	Tuition Student Yes No	Bus No.

HOME CONDITIONS	EDUCATIONAL PLANS		SPECIAL INTERESTS AND ABILITIES
	Date of Parents	Date of Students	

RECORD OF TRANSCRIPTS SENT

Date	To Whom Sent	Reason

ADULT EDUCATION RECORD

MEMORANDA

Form No. 63. Klipto Loose Leaf Co., Mason City, Iowa. Designed by Earl O. Berge.

FIG. 19. Reverse side of cumulative-record folder which is continuous through the elementary and secondary school period.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books and Pamphlets

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CHAPTER 2 *Helping Students Individually and in Groups*

THE COUNSELING INTERVIEW

2.1 *A Point of View on Counseling*

The relationship of the counseling interview to the total program of guidance is exceedingly important. The interview, in which a purposeful, person-to-person conversation takes place between counselor and counselee, cannot adequately serve the needs of the student unless information-gathering techniques are brought into action beforehand. Likewise, the follow-up is exceedingly important; through this phase of guidance it can be determined if the plan of action decided upon during the interview has been carried through and with what success. The counseling interview, then, might be referred to as the focal point in the counseling process in which the student is given help in analyzing his problem, appraising his potentialities, and planning a course of action. It must be a cooperative enterprise, with both counselor and counselee thinking concertedly on the student's problem and its solution.

Members of the conference called by the U.S. Office of Education to consider problems of pupil personnel services listed the following points as distinguishing characteristics of this function:

1. Counseling is a person-to-person relationship.
2. There should be mutual participation by counselor and counselee.
3. The counselee's felt needs structure the counseling process.

4. The purposes of counseling are to help the individual in understanding himself, solving problems, and making plans.

5. Counseling emphasizes the counselee's self-direction and self-acceptance.[1]

2.2 *Conducting the Counseling Interview*

Students present problems of different types, and their problems vary under different conditions; therefore, no one arbitrary schedule of events during an interview can be predicted. The ideal type of counseling interview would result if the student realized that he had a problem and sought the counselor for help. Since counseling should be thought of as a continuing process, perhaps all students should be scheduled for an interview at least once each year for the purpose of checking on plans and progress and making any adjustments the need for which has come to light since the last interview. Many students will need more counseling interviews than one a year. The number of counseling interviews should be determined by the needs of the students.

The following steps are recognized as having merit in conducting a counseling interview:

1. *Preparation.* The counselor should examine the counselee's cumulative record before the student arrives in order to get clearly in mind a picture of the student's background, achievements, and plans thus far. It is best not to use the cumulative record during the interview unless specific information is needed. In addition to the cumulative record, other educational and occupational materials which may be needed should be at hand.

2. *Establishing friendly relationships with the counselee.* The counselee should be greeted in a friendly and cordial manner. Every attempt should be made to have the student relaxed and at ease before the problem is approached. Privacy is an absolute necessity, and the physical setting should be such that both counselor and counselee are at ease and free from distractions.

3. *Beginning the interview.* It would be unwise for the counselor to go directly to the student's problem. A period of conversation

[1] U.S. Office of Education. *Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Circular 325, January, 1951, p. 5.

about things in which the counselee is known to have an interest is good technique. A few minutes of such conversation may provide the necessary clues as to the best approach for the counselor to use. This preliminary "warming-up" period also helps the student to relax.

4. *Working on the problem.* Attacking the problem is the crux of the counseling process. All activities preceding or following this part of the interview are merely adjuncts. The student must be given ample time to state and describe his problem; this is his problem, not the counselor's. The counselor's job is to help the student, not to solve his problem for him. Any plan of action agreed upon during the interview will be more likely to become a reality if the student senses his problem, accepts it, and has a major role in planning the course of action.

5. *Closing the interview.* The interview should not continue any longer than necessary. Neither should it be terminated before some plan of action has been made. Some sort of summary of what has taken place during the interview should be made by the student, if possible. If the counselor stands and moves toward the door, the interview may come to an end gracefully.

6. *Recording information.* Immediately after the interview, the counselor should take time to record whatever information he thinks necessary in the student's cumulative record. This information provides continuity from interview to interview or in the follow-up work.

7. *Follow-up work.* The time spent in conducting interviews and planning courses of action for students is wasted unless the plans made are put into action. In most cases, the counselor should assume the responsibility of checking the degree to which the plans are carried out and evaluating the results in terms of benefit to the student.

2.3 *The Directive and Nondirective Viewpoints in Counseling*

From any point of view—the directive, the nondirective, or an intermediate position—counseling must be regarded as an adjustive process. Definitions of counseling advanced by the proponents of the directive and nondirective viewpoints do not seem to conflict. Arbuckle [2] points out that the directive people believe counseling to

[2] Dugald S. Arbuckle. "Good Counseling—What Is It?" *Educational Administration and Supervision.* Vol. 34, No. 5 (May, 1948), p. 305.

be a "means of helping people how to learn to solve their own problems," while the nondirective people propose that counseling is a "means of allowing the client to gain an understanding of himself to a degree which enables him to take positive steps in the light of his new orientation." Even though the two schools of thought on counseling seemingly agree on the end result, it must be remembered that each school proposes to reach the end by a different method.

The chief difference in approach seems to center around the ability of the student to understand himself and his problem and to develop a new orientation. The nondirective people feel that the client has within himself the necessary powers to view and analyze his problems and to arrive at decisions which will permit him to move forward under his own power. The directive people feel that the client needs help in viewing and analyzing his problems and in the selection of new adjustments. They feel that the counselor is in a better position to view the client's problems than the client is himself. The nondirective people feel that the client has the answers to his problems while the directive people feel that the counselor also has some of them. It should be remembered, however, that nondirective counseling is concerned primarily with the emotional adjustment of the client; it is believed that once this aspect of the client's problem is resolved he will be able to move forward under his own power.[3]

It is doubtful that any one approach would lend itself to all possible counseling situations. Arbuckle [4] lists a number of situations in which the nondirective approach would not apply, and it is quite conceivable that it would be poor judgment to use the directive approach in a counseling situation which is primarily one of emotional tensions and frustrations. It would probably be best to recognize that no two counseling situations are identical and that the counselor should use the approach and to the degree he thinks best in helping the student to understand his problems and to effect satisfactory adjustments. Part of the task of a competent counselor is choosing the right approach to meet each individual counseling situation.

[3] A clear presentation of the differences in the approaches to directive and nondirective counseling may be found in Dugald S. Arbuckle. *Teacher Counseling*, Chap. 2. Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc. 1950.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 24–25.

Whether the approach is directive or nondirective, the welfare of the counselee must always be the controlling factor.

2.4 *Counseling on the Elementary School Level*

Counseling in the elementary school may be done by the regular classroom teacher and/or a professionally trained counselor of elementary school children. Since most schools are without professionally trained guidance workers, what is done must be done, for the most part, by the classroom teacher. This means that special training in guidance as a part of teacher-training programs should become a reality.

Some schools are fortunate in having professionally trained guidance workers to assist in this work. The special counselor, by virtue of his special competencies, may make intensive studies of children with problems. He is in a position to study each child carefully, to analyze his abilities and needs, and to recommend adjustments. He is in a position to work closely with the home and other agencies in gathering information about the pupil which should improve the quality of guidance.

It would be an ideal situation for an elementary school to have classroom teachers with some training in guidance as well as the services of an elementary school counselor to assist the classroom teachers in guidance work. The work of each would complement the work of the other.

2.5 *Counseling on the Secondary School Level*

Because of the need for vocational guidance in the secondary school, more concrete evidences of counseling are available on the secondary school level than on the elementary level. Ideally, all persons who work with secondary school boys and girls should possess the guidance viewpoint and as many special competencies in guidance as possible. Regular classroom teachers must realize their responsibility in offering educational guidance to their pupils. Students should be shown the value of the subject as related to life situations; they should be shown the relation of the subject in question to other subjects to follow and to their over-all educational plan. This is guidance, and all teachers should stand ready to develop it.

There is also need for professionally trained counselors in the secondary school. Home-room teachers need special training, inasmuch as the core of the guidance program centers around them in many schools. Guidance-minded people in modern education have been quick to realize the vast possibilities of the home-room organization in helping to carry out the guidance function. Trained counselors on the secondary school level are also needed to integrate the program of pupil personnel services and to provide counseling of an educational, vocational, or personal nature for all who need it. The cumulative records should be kept by the principal guidance officer. This person would probably be either the home-room teacher, the professional counselor, or a teacher-counselor, depending upon the organization of the school. Guiding pupils must be a cooperative venture. The resources of all personnel connected with an educational system, coordinated by professionally trained guidance people, should be pooled in developing guidance programs.

SOME AREAS OF COUNSELOR ACTIVITY

2.6 *Counseling in the Modification of Student Plans*

The development of plans of action through the counseling program should always be made on a flexible basis to allow for needed changes. Changes should be kept to a minimum, but when it becomes apparent that a change would be to the student's advantage, it should take place without delay. "Changes will be necessary because of failure in courses studied, changes in interests of students, recommendations of principals, counselors, or teachers, request of parents, and for other reasons." [5] Sometimes the inclusion of new data into the student's cumulative record may indicate that the student's plans do not tally with the available data. When this occurs, pupils should be permitted and encouraged by counselors to modify their educational plans. Any change in plans should be done with as little loss of credit as possible. The new choice may necessitate beginning with the basic fundamentals of the new selection. Any deficiency in credit because of transfer to a new vocation or course may be made up if the student remains in school longer or attends summer school.

[5] Clarence C. Dunsmoor and Leonard M. Miller. *Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers*, p. 81. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company. 1949.

2.7 *Counseling on Vocational or Professional Choice*

Helping students to evaluate their individual patterns of potentialities and then to choose and accept a suitable vocational or professional choice is an important aspect of the guidance function. All factors bearing upon an individual's chances for success in a given vocation or profession should be pointed out to the student by his counselor. Such factors as intellectual aptitude, health and physical capacities, vocational and fundamental skills, and other standards bearing upon success should be pointed out. Likewise, the student's chances of getting employment upon completion of his training should be pointed out to him by the counselor. Many vocations and professions are overcrowded; however, it should be kept in mind that there is always room for the well-qualified, well-adjusted individual who is willing to apply himself. Any student anticipating entrance into a profession or vocation which requires a prolonged period of training and which requires considerable financial backing should be informed of these conditions by his counselor. Parents should also be given this information when the student is informed.

2.8 *Counseling on Entrance into Vocations*

Many students are forced to withdraw from school before graduation for reasons beyond their control. If the school knows in advance that a student is going to leave, provisions should be made for the student who has vocational aptitude to be given some vocational training before he leaves school. The practice of providing vocational training just before the student leaves school works out well for the student who plans and finishes a normal course. It is difficult to apply this practice, however, with the pupil who is forced from school earlier than usual. For the pupil leaving school early, the time to begin vocational training will depend upon the amount of time remaining for the student and the length of time required to complete the anticipated course. Every attempt should be made to provide some vocational training before the pupil leaves school, if he can profit from the training. Perhaps graduation requirements should be waived for the early leaver and emphasis placed upon the selection of subjects—vocational and cultural—which will help the student

most in what he plans to do. The counselor will play an important role in this adjustment.

2.9 *Counseling on Entrance into College*

Those pupils who have elected to enter college, with the advice of their counselors, should be provided experiences which will prepare them for college entrance. Because all colleges do not have the same entrance requirements, it is advisable to prepare a student to enter a particular college which he has selected. Some large secondary schools enrolling a high percentage of students preparing to enter college employ special college counselors who advise students about choice of college and entrance requirements. If the student preparing for college entrance fails in any part of his work which is required for college entrance, he and his parents should be notified of this fact. If a change for the better cannot be made, the pupil should be helped in choosing a vocation which does not require college training.

2.10 *Counseling on Appearance, Language Handicaps, and Mannerisms*

A student's deficiencies in language and appearance should be corrected or alleviated, if possible, before he leaves school to enter college or a vocation. In fact, deficiencies of this type should be located as early in the child's school experience as possible and appropriate steps taken to effect the desired change, for which considerable time may be needed.

Counseling the student who is somewhat different is a real challenge. Many of his patterns and manners may have been a part of his behavior for a long time. This means that results may not be forthcoming immediately and that patience and hard work will be necessary to effect changes. Much of this work will need to be done through individual counseling, but there is much that can be done through group dynamics. Helping students who are different to fit into social groups and to develop feelings of security is exceedingly important. A significant statement by Fedder [6] follows:

[6] Ruth Fedder. *Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities*, p. 356. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1949.

Such an individual needs special help. It is the leader's responsibility to give it, whether this means making it possible for a boy or girl to develop a physical skill or a special ability, giving him information about personal hygiene, calling attention to a mannerism, talking with him about his appearance, or teaching him social techniques and manners. As a result of this help, an individual may grow in security, in self-confidence, in a group.

2.11 *Counseling on Financial Need*

Some parents may experience real financial hardship unless their children can contribute to their own support. When cases of this kind come to the attention of the counselor, he should help the student to find part-time work and to integrate this program with his school program. Many students cannot remain in school unless adjustments of this sort are made. Even though the student may be able to attend school only part time, it is better than to have him sever all connections.

Students enrolled in the secondary school must have some spending money beyond what they need for the necessities, if they are going to carry on a normal social program with their peers. They must have money for dates, cokes, and so forth, and those without resources from home must get it in some other way. Counselors should be alert to this problem and should help students to find ways to earn their spending money.

There will come to the attention of teachers and counselors students who come from homes where welfare help is needed. These cases should be called to the attention of welfare agencies in the community. Improvement of conditions in the home may facilitate the satisfactory adjustment of the student in school.

2.12 *Counseling on Leadership*

Leadership qualities emerge from a group of students when the potentialities of each individual student are discovered and developed and when growth takes place in a normal group, thus developing important interpersonal competencies. The development of these potentialities is the result of both individual and group guidance experiences.

A student's competency in a skill or subject area may have little

value unless the student is given the opportunity to use it in some group relationship. The school offers many opportunities for all students to develop leadership competencies. They appear not only in the many aspects of the student's classroom life but in his extraclass experiences as well. In both instances, the individual student has the opportunity to develop attributes which are peculiar to himself and to develop interpersonal competencies which are really important in successful group living.

The values which come to students through participation in group experiences are stated by Fedder [7] as follows:

> Individual development cannot take place in a vacuum. Group experience is its laboratory. Real education takes place as an individual participates in activities by which he is affected and which his participation affects. The individual's experiences in groups become a part of his program for growth into a mature, useful citizen, sensitive to the needs and problems of those about him, able therefore to make decisions for the good of society. Through a series of guided experiences the individual builds opinions and attitudes. Through situations in which he can practice thinking and acting, he is provided careful training in thinking and acting for himself. He learns what democratic fellowship is as he practices it. As he works in groups and with others on common concerns, the significance of living together is interpreted and reinterpreted to him.

Counseling for leadership means helping boys and girls to gain confidence in themselves, to develop poise, to respect the attitudes and abilities of others, and to develop a feeling of responsibility toward making our democracy, as a way of life, carry its full meaning.

2.13 *Counseling on the Factors of Determination and Perseverance*

Strong motives of determination and perseverance should be utilized at every opportunity by the counselor in relation to worthwhile activities and experiences of the student. Cognizance should be taken of the fact that the presence of the strong incentives of determination and perseverance may compensate to some extent for a lower level of scholastic aptitude. When students are known to have ambitions above their capacities, they should be challenged to

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 353.

evaluate their objectives with demonstrated successes and failures which have come to them. Through counseling, the student must be helped to select and accept a new objective in keeping with his pattern of abilities and interests. Responsiveness in the individual is needed. Repeated failure to attain the initial objective may help the student to develop a responsiveness to an alternate plan.

The task of counseling parents may be more difficult than working with students. Again, the counselor must offer help to the parent in the reorientation of his thinking toward plans for his son or daughter. In many instances, parents project plans for their children around thwarted plans of their own youth. If the student has accepted an alternate objective, perhaps he will be able to help his parents to accept the new objective. In his efforts to help the parents respond to and accept the alternate plan, the counselor may want to use pertinent facts and information which he has gathered about the student.

2.14 *Counseling the New Student on Entrance into School*

When a student enters a school as a transfer from another school, he needs counseling. In the elementary school, this will be done by the pupil's new regular teacher, an elementary school counselor, or both. In the secondary school, it will be done by the home-room teacher, the teacher-counselor, or a special counselor, depending upon the school's organization.

In many instances, the student will bring only fragmentary information with him. It may be necessary to start gathering information toward the development of a cumulative record. The important thing, in the beginning, is to find out as much about the student as possible in the way of plans, interests, and capabilities, so that placement in the school's program will fit the student's needs as nearly as possible. Perhaps several conferences will be needed before satisfactory adjustment is achieved.

In addition to the satisfactory adjustment of the new student to the academic program of the school, it is also imperative to guide and help him to gain the group's social acceptance. This is not always easy to do, for students are sometimes reluctant to accept an unfamiliar student. The teacher or counselor's discovery of interests, hobbies, and skills in the new student may well be the basis for acceptance by

the group. Helping the new student to develop interpersonal relationships with the group is exceedingly important.

2.15 *Counseling on Deficiencies in Home Background*

All children respond to, and reflect, the experiences provided in the home. Pupils coming to school with gaping holes in their backgrounds because of the inadequacies of the home create guidance problems, for these weaknesses strongly influence pupils' viewpoints toward education and vocation. The school should attempt to provide experiences which will alleviate the deficiencies as much as possible.

For example, a child coming from a home in which there is strife between the parents may have a feeling of insecurity. Interest in the child in school may help to develop a feeling of security. Low health standards in the home may be offset by the provision of health facilities in the school. Cultural deficiencies in the home may be offset in the school if opportunity is given for the experiencing and appreciation of literature, music, and other aesthetic areas. Much can be done by the schools, if they are alert to the needs of each child.

2.16 *Counseling on Physical and Health Deficiencies*

"The personal life of the student can facilitate or obstruct the process of learning." [8] It is upon this fact that counseling on health is based. Physical and health deficiencies are of two types, temporary or remediable and permanent. The health service, teachers, and counselors must work cooperatively in discovering deficiencies and in providing the therapies—physical and mental—to alleviate the health deficiencies as much as possible and to provide the counseling that the student needs to help him understand his problem. Chapter 6, on Meeting the Health Needs of Students, develops in detail the various aspects of physical and mental health as related to the student.

Students with physical impairments which are likely to be more or less permanent will need guidance to a greater degree than those with remediable deficiencies. Grouping these students in special classes where their physical needs may be met better is a real chal-

[8] Milton Schwebel and Ella F. Harris. *Health Counseling*, p. 16. New York: Chartwell House, Inc. 1951.

lenge to guidance. Helping them to accept their handicap and to plan useful and happy lives comes through guidance. Helping them to fit into the world of work with an attitude of independence and self-sufficiency is a special assignment for counselors. Chap. 9, on Helping Students with Special Physical Needs, approaches the problems of guiding the major classifications of physically handicapped children.

2.17 *Counseling on Worth-while Use of Leisure Time*

Leisure-time counseling is worthy of considerable attention from the counselor. Fedder [9] states that "upon the solution of the problem of leisure time depends the moral and cultural tone of our society." It is hoped that counseling on the worth-while use of leisure time, while the student is in school, will carry over into adult life. The wise use of leisure time will contribute immeasurably to the satisfactions which come to an adult. This development may be facilitated if full use is made of extraclass activities emphasizing worthy use of leisure time. Special abilities fortified with interest may be often satisfied and developed through leisure-time activities. Then, too, there is always the chance that special abilities developed through so-called leisure-time activities may open vocational possibilities for the pupil. "The lack of any genuine provision for the development of skills and hobbies is one of the severest indictments that one can make of many schools." [10]

2.18 *Counseling on Out-of-school Exploratory Experiences*

Out-of-school activities are not considered under the jurisdiction of the school, but the alert counselor will be aware that they are a means of providing exploratory experiences in individual cases. Working with the pupil and the parent, if possible, the counselor may recommend experiences in hobby groups, musical and art organizations, dramatics, and other possible sources of experience available in the community.

For the most part, though, the counselor should look to the extraclass exploratory experiences available within the school rather than to possible out-of-school opportunities. The extraclass activity pro-

[9] Fedder, *op. cit.*, p. 358.
[10] *Ibid.*

gram for the individual pupil should always take into consideration the pupil's out-of-school activities. For example, if the pupil is carrying an active program in music outside of school, it would seem best to curtail participation in extraclass musical organizations within the school and perhaps to recommend other activities which would have exploratory or enriching value.

2.19 *The Need for Counseling Early School Leavers*

The attrition rate among secondary school pupils is an alarming fact which must be faced and alleviated if the secondary schools are going to serve youth and society as they should. An important segment of the human resources of the nation goes undeveloped if students drop from school early. Gragg [11] states that "only about 50 per cent of the boys and girls who enter high school today can reasonably be expected to emerge four years hence with a record of having achieved all the requirements set up by their respective states for high school graduation." This is a sign of weakness in our educational programs. It means that the schools are failing to meet the needs of the students.

2.20 *Why Do Pupils Drop Out of School?*

Not much can be done toward keeping youth in school unless we know why they drop out. Harold Dillon gathered the reasons of 957 youth for leaving school. His results appear in Table 1.

Each school should analyze the reasons for early leaving among its drop-outs. The reasons will undoubtedly vary somewhat from school to school. Elmer Holbeck surveyed the reasons for early leaving among 149 drop-outs at Passaic, N.J. His results are shown in Table 2.

The studies by Dillon and Holbeck represent only one approach to finding out why students drop from school. Both asked the students why they dropped. Dillon used the questionnaire approach, while Holbeck used the interview approach. Getting the student's attitude and reasons is exceedingly important. Perhaps there are other approaches which might also be used. Gragg [12] suggests that the prob-

[11] William Lee Gragg. "Some Factors Which Distinguish Drop-outs from High School Graduates." *Occupations*. Vol. 27, No. 7 (April, 1949), p. 457.

[12] Gragg, *op. cit.*, p. 458.

Table 1. Frequency of Reasons Given by 957 Youth as of First Importance in Decision to Leave School *

Reasons	*Frequency*	*Per cent*
Relating to School:		
Preferred work to school	342	36
Was not interested in school work	104	11
Could not learn and was discouraged	66	7
Was failing and didn't want to repeat grade	55	6
Disliked a certain teacher	47	5
Disliked a certain subject	30	3
Could learn more out of school than in school	16	1
Financial:		
Needed money to buy clothes and help at home	144	15
Wanted spending money	55	6
Personal:		
Ill health	49	5
Friends had left school	29	3
Parents wanted youth to leave school	20	2
Total	957	100

* Harold J. Dillon. *Early School Leavers,* Table 24, p. 50. New York: National Child Labor Committee. 1949.

Table 2. Reasons Given by 149 Early Leavers *

Reasons	*Frequency*
Wanted to go to work	32
Not interested in school work	21
Had to help support my family	17
Went to vocational school	15
Failed in my subjects	14
High school subjects were not helpful to me	11
School didn't give me what I wanted	10
Not encouraged to stay in school	10
School work was too hard	6
Entered the service	5
Disliked my teachers	4
Illness	2
Moved out of city	1
Not certain	1
Total	149

* Elmer S. Holbeck. "Seven Ways to Help Prevent Drop-outs." *Nation's Schools.* Vol. 45, No. 5 (May, 1950), pp. 35–36.

lem might be approached by "seeking the factors in the total situation which are most closely associated with the problem." Such an approach goes to the roots of the problem. Perhaps we need a combination of approaches to find the basic answer to the drop-out problem.

2.21 *What Can Be Done to Curtail Dropping Out?*

Knowing why pupils drop out of school provides an evaluation of the present program and services offered. On the basis of such evaluation, it is the responsibility of the school to build a program which will more fully meet the needs of youth and which will hold a larger proportion of them in school for a longer period of time. What can be done to increase the holding power of the school? Dillon asked 763 youth for suggestions; they gave 1,662 replies, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Changes Suggested by 763 School Leavers *

Suggestions	*Frequency*	*Per cent*
Provide work experiences	377	23
Specific vocational instruction	245	15
Services of guidance counselor	196	12
More personal contact with teacher	188	11
More participation in school activities	184	11
Opportunity to change courses	175	11
Smaller classes with more individual instruction	166	9
Transfer to another school	131	8
Total	1,662	100

* Harold J. Dillon. *Early School Leavers*, Table 30, p. 57. New York: National Child Labor Committee. 1949.

In addition to the suggestions given by pupils, Dillon [13] makes a number of specific recommendations based on his study of school leavers:

1. Know the student as an individual.
2. Obtain the student's confidence.

[13] These recommendations were extracted from Harold J. Dillon. *Early School Leavers*, pp. 82–88. New York: National Child Labor Committee. 1949. They were listed in U.S. Office of Education. *Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School, and What Can We Do About It?* Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Circular 269, 1950, pp. 14–15.

3. Provide an educational program in which the students can experience achievement.
4. Give grade repeaters something new.
5. Demonstrate relationship between education and life.
6. Provide occupational information.
7. Extend social experiences.
8. Give some personal recognition.
9. Recognize signs of trouble.
10. Provide for above-average students.
11. Establish a good record system.
12. Make use of the records.
13. Help students to select the right course.
14. Begin counseling early.
15. Allow time for home visits.
16. Secure parent interest and cooperation.
17. Secure public support.

2.22 *Counseling Early School Leavers*

An analysis of the recommendations made by Dillon and the students who were asked by Dillon to make suggestions reveals that the problem centers chiefly around the guidance function and the building of meaningful growth experiences for individual students. The number of potential drop-outs will be cut sharply if the schools concern themselves with the development of guidance programs. All potential drop-outs should be spotted and conferences should be held in an attempt to alleviate the reasons for dropping out. If the attempt proves unsuccessful, the reason for dropping should be ascertained and the school should assume the responsibility of providing placement counseling for the student.

GROUP GUIDANCE TECHNIQUES

2.23 *Group Guidance through Special Exploratory Courses*

Classes designed with special emphasis upon exploration for the student have been developed in both the academic and the vocational fields. These classes fit best in the junior high school, where emphasis is normally placed upon wide experience to afford a better background for entrance into senior high school and where, normally,

there is some specialization. Academically speaking, a class in modern languages could be arranged in which the semester was divided into three six-week periods, in each of which a different language was studied from a functional standpoint. Obviously, not very much time could be spent on grammar. As a result of this experience, the pupil, with the help of the teacher or counselor, could select the language for continued study which seemed best suited to him and which he liked best.

Similar classes could be set up in the various trade and vocational courses. A shop could be divided into cubicles, extending around the outside of the classroom, in which the simple tools and materials for use in a vocational skill would be kept. Such skills as tinwork, metalwork, forge and foundry work, and carpentry lend themselves to this type of exploration. The student would move from cubicle to cubicle trying himself out in the various skills under the careful supervision of the instructor. Choice of future courses in the vocations might well be made by the student with the help of his teacher or counselor on the basis of success and interest displayed in these tryout experiences.

2.24 *Group Guidance through Common-learnings Classes*

Common learnings on the secondary school level are possible if subjects are combined into a single unit, a longer period of time thus being available for the teacher to work with the group. This helps the teacher to know his pupils better as individuals and makes it possible for him to adapt the program to the needs of the students. The common-learnings background of the program should be geared to real-life situations reflected in the community. These courses are valuable as instruments of guidance because they reach all students. They are exceedingly flexible and are easily adjusted to meet individual needs.

Barbara Wright [14] summarizes the purposes of the common-learnings class over and above the traditional teaching aspects as follows:

1. To handle administrative routines
2. To provide a place where pupils are known as individuals and where they can come for advice and counsel

[14] Barbara H. Wright. *Practical Handbook for Group Guidance*, pp. 22–23. Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1948.

3. To provide a place for informal group discussion of immediate problems and issues facing boys and girls
4. To provide practice in democratic government
5. To provide an opportunity for groups of pupils to carry on worth-while activities for school and community.

There is evidence that the common-learnings class or group may become synonymous with the home room. Or it might be stated that not only does the home room take care of administrative routines but its function is primarily that of guidance through a common-learnings type of experience. This is one of the significant trends in secondary education today.

2.25 *Group Guidance through Extraclass Groups*

Every experience which a student has, whether in regular class or in extraclass activities, has possibilities of behavior modification. Extraclass activities must not be overlooked, because they have real guidance possibilities. They offer an opportunity for students to discover interests, abilities, and aptitudes which may not be discovered in any other way. They offer opportunity for actual experiences in areas of vocations or avocations; the experiences may be experimental in nature, or they may provide information. All pupils should belong to one or more organizations in the school. One of these organizations might well be the home room, which might assist in the student government of the school.

Extraclass activities are important only if they contribute something to the well-rounded growth of the child. Clubs and activities should be chosen because they have something to offer the child, such as overcoming some weakness or strengthening and stimulating capabilities already present. It is quite natural that children generally select those activities in which they are most proficient. This is desirable, because it will further develop interests or abilities already present.

As important as the presence of extraclass experiences is the need of adjusting pupil load in relation to such experiences. A student may be involved in too many such activities, especially if he is carrying a heavy out-of-school program. His program should be carefully analyzed before an extraclass activity is recommended and the pupil permitted to enter.

Levels of pupil ability should always be given careful consideration in adjusting extraclass activities. Extraclass activity programs for both high and low levels of ability among pupils should always be planned according to the individual pupils' needs. Full advantage of the opportunities offered through this important area of experience should be taken in effecting desired modifications in pupil behavior. Obviously, the brighter student might conceivably be enrolled in more such activities than the slower child, but even the slower student should be permitted some experience in this area. The amount of time a slower student is able to spend will be determined largely by how successfully he is handling his academic work. If doing regular classroom work does not permit him some experiences in this area, perhaps standards have been set too high in his particular case.

Diversification of membership in clubs and extraclass activities should be encouraged among students. It would be unwise to permit a pupil to engage in too many extraclass experiences of the same general nature and interest. A student with a single interest should be guided into other activities which might open up new interests. The pupil showing an inclination to engage in too few experiences of this sort should be guided into a wider range. The possibility of extraclass activities bringing to light undiscovered interests and abilities should not be overlooked.

The use of extraclass experiences should be considered as a possibility of helping to alleviate personality deficiencies. For example, a pupil who tends toward introversion, but who has musical talent, may well be guided into an extraclass group in which not only would he continue to have his musical talents developed but the group interaction might help him to develop needed social competencies. The task of helping such a student gain initial acceptance, possibly on the basis of his talent, is discussed in Sec. 2.26. This technique is not held out as a panacea for alleviating patterns of isolation found in some students but is merely mentioned as one of the possible therapies. Introversion can be exceedingly complicated and require prolonged and careful treatment.

Curtailment of participation in interschool activities is the usual policy for students doing failing work in regular school activites. This more often applies to athletic activities than to activities such as music and dramatics. Consider the student who is working up to

capacity but still not doing satisfactory work in the classroom. To deny this student participation in an activity which means much to him and in which he excels would be to rob him of an experience which may mean more to him in all-round growth than acceptable work in some academic enterprise.

2.26 *Group Guidance through School Clubs*

Successful participation in a school club, as a group experience, provides an excellent opportunity for the development of student potentialities. The school club offers opportunities to develop useful skills, to learn to live and work successfully in a group, to affect others and be affected, to respect the viewpoints of others, and to practice leadership and followship. The development of interpersonal competencies must receive prime consideration in education. They constitute the real basis for democratic understanding; unless the individual student is given opportunity to learn them in school, his successful adjustment in adulthood may be impeded.

How should boys and girls be grouped? There seem to be at least three important bases for grouping.

1. *Grouping on the basis of interests.* The presence of a common interest among the members of a club serves to coordinate the efforts of the group toward a common goal. Interest in the activities carried on by a club should help one to feel at home, to feel that he belongs to the group. If each member feels secure in the group, he then enters into the group's activity and develops competencies accordingly.

Even though the presence of a common interest among the members of a club is excellent to have, its advantages would be negated if the social structure of the group were such that its members would not work toward a common goal cooperatively. Perhaps a better approach would be to group students into working units by means of sociometric tests. Interests then could be brought to light and made the focus of attention. The unchosen students as shown by the sociometric tests could be placed in groups according to interests, and through this interest they might be accepted, in time, by the group.

2. *Grouping on the basis of skills or hobbies.* Grouping students in clubs built around skills or hobbies provides a common level on which students with many varied interests and potentialities are able

to work together for the mutual benefit of all. In evaluating the effectiveness of clubs, Fedder[15] found that "skills and hobbies provided security, recognition and achievement, as well as profitable occupation of [the students'] leisure time."

What has been said in the preceding section on grouping students in clubs on the basis of interests first without regard for the social structure of the club is applicable also to grouping pupils primarily on the basis of skills or hobbies. If sociometric tests were used to group pupils first on the basis of choice of associates, then perhaps the skill or hobby could be made the focal point of the club. Again, unchosen pupils might be distributed among the clubs according to hobbies and skills. A student's ability to perform a skill may be the very reason for his acceptance into the group. There must be group acceptance before any real value can come from club membership.

3. *Grouping on the basis of interpersonal relationships.* The use of sociometric tests provides the group leader with a means of determining the social structure of the group.[16] A group beset with cliques will display low morale and little will be accomplished. Formation of cliques should be prevented in the initial stages of planning the club memberships.

The interpersonal relationships which exist among the members of a group may be discovered by means of sociometric tests. The students should be prepared for the test by being told that it is a way of forming clubs to make sure that students are grouped with others with whom they would like to be grouped. From a psychological standpoint, it would be best not to refer to the procedure as a test. The approach must be casual and informal. Stating the question is of great importance.[17] The crux of the statement comes when the counselor asks the students to list in order the three persons with whom they would like to be grouped in a club.

After gathering the choices, the next step is to tabulate the choices on a sociometric-tabulation form. From the tabulation form, the data may be plotted on a sociogram which clearly pictures the interpersonal relationships among the various members of the group. See

[15] Fedder, *op. cit.*, p. 358.

[16] Excellent discussions on the use of sociometry in the formation of clubs may be found in Fedder, *op. cit.*, pp. 282–286. Helen H. Jennings. *Sociometry in Group Relations*, pp. 60–65. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1948.

[17] See Jennings, *op. cit.*, pp. 60–61, for a well-worded statement.

Secs. 6.49 and 6.50 for additional information on the construction and use of the sociogram.

The sociogram will reveal many interesting facts about the interpersonal relationships in the group. It must be studied carefully. Additional information gathered from observations and interviews should be considered as well as the picture presented by the sociogram. The use of data on interpersonal relationships will greatly facilitate the formation of clubs in which students will work cooperatively as a unit, for the most part.

The problem of persuading groups to accept the unchosen or those who are just a little different or who are unfamiliar must not be avoided. It would be folly to place without group acceptance and by force a person of this sort in a group, yet the needs of all students for group participation should be met. Fedder [18] suggests that "there must be some common basis of interest, some group purpose that surmounts their distrust and suspicion of the unfamiliar." Perhaps if some interest, hobby, or skill could be discovered in the unfamiliar person, then the group would accept him as one having something in common with them. It is, then, through the interest or skill that the student is accepted into the group, the attitude of rejection is broken down, and the new person becomes a cooperating, participating member. The coercion of groups to accept new members without facilitating acceptance makes for poor morale.

Many schools do not organize their clubs until they have determined what the wishes and needs of the group are. The guidance viewpoint is in evidence when this procedure is followed. Special periods should be assigned for club meetings. A group leader should always be in charge of the meetings. Membership should be flexible. If a pupil desires to transfer from one club to another, if the change will not disturb the unity of the group to which he wishes to transfer, and if there is likelihood that he will profit from the change, the change should be effected.

2.27 *Group Guidance through the Home Room*

Since common-learnings classes tie in exceedingly well with homeroom groups, the guidance values of these classes, which have been discussed in Sec. 2.24, are also applicable to this section, in which

[18] Fedder, *op. cit.*, p. 355.

the merits of the home room are discussed from the guidance standpoint. The home-room teacher, if at all possible, should also teach the common-learnings group.

Traditionally the principal purpose of the home room has been to serve administrative ends. Today this is only one of the functions, as the home room has become one of the instruments of guidance, particularly group guidance. Roberts [19] states that the home-room organization should serve the following ends:

1. Helpful, friendly, personal interest in every pupil
2. Orientation in school life and routine
3. Records, reports, and attendance
4. Development of school citizenship, leadership, and personality
5. Cooperation with the director of guidance in assisting pupils with their adjustment problems.

From a group-guidance standpoint, discussions in home rooms on topics which have guidance values are an excellent approach. Even discussions on pertinent topics not connected directly with some phase of guidance may have real value in the development of individual students, their attitudes, and interpersonal competencies which come through group participation.

The number and length of home-room meetings will vary from school to school. Dunsmoor and Miller [20] state that "a daily home-room period of at least thirty minutes should be established. This time would include provision for school routine, which should not exceed five or ten minutes daily, thus leaving a minimum of twenty minutes, or one hundred minutes per week, to be devoted to guidance purposes.

Two fundamental principles should be followed in grouping students in home rooms: The guidance function should be facilitated to the greatest possible degree, and the groups should be so constructed socially that the group works and moves toward objectives as a unit.

Any plan of grouping which makes it possible for the student to remain with the same home-room teacher over a period of time seems to offer advantages in facilitating pupil adjustment because the

[19] Andrew D. Roberts. "What Guidance—and by Whom?" *The Clearing House.* Vol. 24, No. 3 (November, 1949), p. 162.

[20] Dunsmoor and Miller, *op. cit.*, p. 273.

teacher has opportunity to study the individual pupil and to make provision for his needs. Dunsmoor and Miller discuss two ways in which this can be accomplished. For example, a home room in the junior high school might be made up of about the same number of students from grades 7, 8 and 9. As the ninth-graders move on into senior high school, their places are taken by incoming seventh-graders. This plan provides contact of pupil with the same home-room teacher over a three-year period. Another plan would be to assign all seventh-graders heterogeneously to a home-room teacher and have the teacher move from level to level with them through the junior high school. This plan of grouping by grades is not so effective in the senior high school as in the junior high school, because of the number of pupils dropping completely from school or dropping behind in their work. It would seem best to keep as many senior high school pupils as possible with their grade groups.[21]

How can the home-room teacher be assured that he has a group in which the interpersonal relationships are such that the group will work cooperatively toward a common goal? The use of the sociometric test seems to be the best solution to the problem. By knowing the nature of the interpersonal relationships among members of a group, those in charge can greatly facilitate home-room organization. Home rooms made up of small cliques of students prevent the teacher from accomplishing what ought to be accomplished through home-room activities. It is far better to start off with a group which will work and plan together than with one which is divided against itself. See Sec. 2.26 for additional information on the use of the sociometric test in the grouping of students.

2.28 *Group Guidance through Orientation Programs*

Transition from one school to another forces a student to face the task of adjusting to entirely new programs. This is not easy. The student needs help in making the transition. This help may come before the transition and also at the beginning of the student's experiences in the new school. Speer [22] states that "most writers agree that articu-

[21] *Ibid.*, pp. 275–276.

[22] James B. Speer. "Recent Trends in Articulation with Opinions of Pupils, Parents and Teachers." *Educational Administration and Supervision.* Vol. 33, No. 2 (February, 1947), p. 67.

lation between schools can be improved by a better program of orientation to pupils. Any break in the child's schooling or transition from one school level or type to another is a potential point of inarticulation." Inarticulation not only wastes the time of a pupil who makes the transition to the next school but it also provides, in many instances, the reason for complete interruption of the student's education. Froehlich [23] summarizes the functions of orientation programs as follows: "The school's orientation procedures should be a continuing service to all students each of whom is in need of assistance in making a wide variety of adjustments in a new school situation."

2.29 *Orientation Programs before Transition of Student to New School*

Orientation programs carried on while the student is still in the transmitting school are usually directed toward the development of the student's interests in the next school. Where these activities are carried on will depend upon the school's organization. If the school is organized on a 6-3-3 basis, these will occur in grades 6, 9, and 12; if on an 8-4 basis, in grades 8 and 12. There may be other variations.

Pre-entrance orientation programs usually consist of assemblies or home-room groups serving as hosts to visiting counselors and students from the next level of adjustment, or students from the sending school may visit the receiving school in groups. Programs in the receiving schools usually consist of visits of the prospective students to the new school and include a group program, during which counselors and student leaders tell the visitors about what the school has in store for them. Some very effective programs have been worked out on the various levels.

2.30 *An Illustrative Orientation Program for Incoming High School Freshmen*

Lawrence Mason [24] reported on a pre-entrance orientation program held as follows:

[23] Clifford P. Froehlich. *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools*, p. 84. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1950.

[24] Lawrence G. Mason. "Guidance Aids for Incoming Freshmen." *The Clearing House*. Vol. 24, No. 7 (March, 1950), pp. 419–420.

1. Members of the Photography Club of the senior high school prepared colored slides showing various classrooms and extracurricular activities which are a daily part of the classroom. These pictures started with an eighth-grade graduation exercise and ended with a picture of senior high graduation. Eighth-grade students and parents were invited to attend an evening meeting at which these slides were shown. The showing was followed by a general discussion on the various courses offered in the senior high school.

2. Eighth-grade students were invited to spend a day at the high school. Upon arrival, the students were divided into groups of approximately fifteen each. Two upper-class students, or one student and an eighth-grade teacher, acted as guides for each group. They visited all departments.

3. Representatives of the guidance department visited the eighth-grade home rooms in the respective school. At this time descriptive material about the various courses offered in the high school, together with a copy of the high school handbook, was presented to each student. Again an opportunity was offered for students to ask questions.

4. An individual conference was scheduled at the local elementary school for each of these students. This conference was scheduled within a week or ten days after the counselor visited the school. Parents were invited to sit in on conferences.

The above program has several excellent features:

1. Students of the receiving school took an active part.
2. Orientation activity took place in both the elementary school and the secondary school.
3. New students, through visitation, gained first-hand information about the new school.
4. Visiting students were given the opportunity to ask specific questions on which they wanted information.
5. The plan included not only group guidance activities but also individual counseling.
6. Parents were given the opportunity to participate actively in the program.

No one plan of pre-entrance guidance could be presented as workable in all schools. So long as the program accomplishes certain pur-

poses, the means of accomplishment must be left up to the local school.

Ample opportunity should be provided in all programs for the transferring student to ask questions. Some of the orientation, at least, should be directed toward individual students and their problems. Probably too many orientation programs are centered around the idea of "selling" the new student on certain phases of the program of the school rather than around facilitating the guidance function of helping students find answers to their problems.

2.31 *Pre-entrance Orientation Programs between the Secondary School and College or Vocation*

College Day or Career Day programs have been developed in many schools with outstanding success. College Day programs revolve around the idea of inviting representatives from various colleges to come to the high school and confer with students individually and in groups on what their particular school has to offer. These programs usually begin with an inspirational talk to all students as a group. The college representatives are assigned to conference rooms and confer with the students, who come according to a prearranged schedule. Sometimes the program is limited to seniors, and sometimes the other classes are permitted to participate on a limited basis. For example, seniors might be permitted three conferences, juniors two conferences, and sophomores one conference. For those students who anticipate going to college, this is one way for them to obtain information about the various colleges in their area. Time and expense would eliminate the possibility of any great amount of visiting college campuses by students.

The Career Day program is organized on a much broader basis; its purpose is to help high school students to get information about vocations and professions. The conference usually opens with an address to the entire group by an outstanding person who understands the problems of youth in adjusting to vocation or profession. This is followed by a number of small group meetings in which the more important areas of work are represented. Again some person actively engaged or trained in the field should be in charge of the group. At the close of the day, the entire group reassembles for an evaluation period.

Lawrence Kenyon reports a unique variation on the Career Day idea held at Davenport, Iowa; a vocational exhibit or display helped to convey information to interested students. Displays illustrating the major occupational fields in the Davenport area were sponsored by trade or professional organizations. Information relating the various school subjects to the vocations was a part of the display. One person was in charge of each booth to talk to interested students. This Career Day plan capitalized upon visualization.[25]

College Day and Career Day programs both represent a type of pre-entrance group orientation. Both have possibilities of making significant contributions to the total guidance program.

Joseph C. Heston writes of an orientation program in which fifty students were invited to attend a four-day educational guidance clinic on the campus of DePauw University prior to entrance. Replies to a questionnaire sent to the counselees following the session indicated that 95 per cent of the counselees considered the program satisfactory and of value to them.[26]

2.32 *Group Guidance through Orientation Classes*

After the student has entered the new school, particularly during the first week of attendance, there is great need for orientation. Almost everything the student encounters is new. New teachers, other new students, new curricular programs, new extraclass activities, new physical facilities, new rules and regulations, new services —all of these are possible areas of orientation. The student needs help in orienting himself to all of these new factors. Obviously, the home room is one place in which a great deal of orientation will go on, particularly during the student's first week in school. Some schools find it advantageous to continue orientation activities during the first semester, in the form of a class. The materials presented in the class may very well cover a wider objective than only orientation to school. It may also contain units of work on occupational guidance. In fact, the central theme of the course might well be an appraisal by each student of his own assets in the light of what the school has

[25] Lawrence B. Kenyon. "A Course in Occupations." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.* Vol. 32, No. 157 (November, 1948), pp. 131–138.

[26] Joseph C. Heston. "The Values of an Educational Guidance Clinic." *Educational and Psychological Measurement.* Vol. 7, No. 2 (Summer, 1947), pp. 299–309.

to offer in preparation for possible entrance into a vocation which fits his pattern of needs and abilities. A course in orientation might well be centered in the home room and made a part of its program.

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CHAPTER 3 *Helping Youth through Vocational Guidance*

3.1 *What Is Vocational Guidance?*

Vocational planning and guidance should be an integral part of the total guidance program of any school. Vocational guidance should not be regarded as a separate entity, a program which stands by itself. A student may have personal traits which will play a major role in determining the nature of vocational guidance given him as an individual. It would be unwise to spend time giving guidance on the choice of a future vocation without also giving guidance on personal problems if they exist. Vocational guidance, however, is of such importance in helping effect successful adjustment of students to the world of work that it needs special emphasis. Vocational guidance may be defined as that process which helps the individual student appraise his potentialities, choose a vocation in keeping with them, plan a course of action to realize the objective, and, finally, make the transition from school to the world of work.

3.2 *The Importance of Vocational Guidance*

The structure of society is becoming increasingly complex. This complexity is reflected in the fact that there are nearly thirty thousand different jobs listed in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.*[1] Matching youth with jobs in which they can do creditable work and be happy is the job of vocational guidance. Vocational guidance is

[1] U.S. Employment Service. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles,* Vol. 1, *Definitions of Titles.* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office. 1949.

concerned with conservation of human resources. Placing "round pegs in round holes" means conservation of human resources. This does not mean that there is only one vocation for each individual; there may be a number of vocations for which an individual may possess the necessary qualifications. Not only does society reap increased benefits from correct placement of individuals, but the person as well derives happiness and generally benefits from such an arrangement. The complexity of society and of the world of work demands that individuals be able to make personal and vocational adjustments and have the potentialities necessary to render a high type of service. Helping youth adjust successfully to the world of work should be one of the school's prime objectives.

3.3 *Vocational Guidance in the Elementary School*

Acquainting children with the world of work may well start in the elementary grades. Units of work centering around the community might include a study of the various types of work to be done in the community. The local setting for such a study will obviously carry much meaning for the children.

Dunsmoor and Miller [2] list the following suggestions to broaden the student's vocational background while he is still enrolled in the elementary school:

1. Help students develop an appreciation of the value and dignity of work.
2. Ask the children to write stories or give oral reports after visits to various places of work.
3. Encourage children to observe work on farms or other places of interest where they come in close contact with workers during vacation periods.
4. Ask for reports on the work done by parents or by other working members of the family.
5. Refer to books in which there are pictures or illustrations of work processes and discuss them.
6. Ask the children to prepare skits illustrating the early jobs in the community.

[2] Clarence C. Dunsmoor and Leonard M. Miller. *Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers,* pp. 230–231. Scranton, Pa.: International Textbook Company. 1949.

7. Dramatize the work of people engaged in present-day occupations, such as that of dairyman, postman, or grocer.

8. Use motion pictures and other visual aids describing fields of work.

A school may find some children who are likely to become early leavers. In such cases, the school should provide as much individual vocational guidance as possible. Children will probably leave school at the end of the final year in the division of the school.

3.4 *Vocational Guidance in the Junior High School*

Much vocational guidance, on both a group and an individual basis, should appear in the junior high school. Since one of the primary functions of the junior high school is exploration, youth of this age should be offered every opportunity for vocational exploration through study, observation, and actual work experience. Obviously, vocational guidance, planning, and training should begin in earnest on the junior high school level.

For those students who will drop from school before or upon completion of the junior high school, as much vocational guidance and training as possible should be provided. Advance knowledge of the approximate leaving date of a student should assist immeasurably in the provision of helpful guidance and training.

Programs of prevocational training will be found on the junior high school level. For students who have aptitude, these courses may prove of inestimable value in providing worth-while and meaningful experiences.

Group guidance activities through home-room activities, common-learning courses, special courses in orientation, guidance, and occupations, and many other courses should be in evidence on this level. These guidance techniques are discussed in more detail later in this section.

3.5 *Vocational Guidance in the Senior High School*

The senior high school period offers the school its final opportunity to guide and prepare its students for entrance into the field of work.

For those students who, through exploration on the junior high school level, have made a definite occupational decision some special-

ized training is in order through courses in school or through a work-experience program.

Many senior high school students may have aptitude for and will be able to profit from specific vocational-training experiences. Training may be provided through actual instruction in the school. Specific training of this type will probably mean more to the student if it comes as close to the time of his withdrawal from school as possible. Even though work-experience programs are intended to be primarily exploratory, in some instances a student might be given the opportunity to develop certain vocational competencies as well. Since the senior high school is the culminating experience of formal education for many students, much of the specific training will be found in this section of the school. For some senior high school students, it will be necessary to continue a period of exploration on the senior high school level.

Both types of students—those who have made a definite vocational choice and those who are still exploring—need continued emphasis upon instruction and guidance which will assist in the transition from school to work. Guidance may come from individual counseling, special classes, regular classes, and other group guidance techniques. Vocational guidance of this type may include information on how to get a job, what to do during an interview, employer-employee relationships, and labor laws.

3.6 *Orientation to Vocational Education*

The aim of any vocational program, full time, part time, or on a cooperative basis, should be to prepare boys and girls in such a way that successful adjustment to the world of work and to life, in general, is possible. Every pupil planning to enter a vocation upon completion of training should be inculcated with desirable attitudes toward his place in society involving industry and business, the church, society, his home, and his future possibilities of education. For stability, youth needs well-rounded experiences which these plans provide. These students are destined to form an important section of the citizenry of our country; it is imperative that they have ideals of good character and intelligent citizenship.

Proximity of a vocational school should never force vocational training, either general or specific, upon an individual for the reason

that it is readily available, if it does not meet his needs. It is preferable to transport the student to a more distant school if the experiences available would better meet his needs.

The vocational school or class should be open to any pupil, irrespective of age or grade, if there is evidence that he can profit from such experience and needs it. Graduation for such a pupil need not be the prime objective. Doing something worth while for the student should be foremost in the minds of those guiding the student.

LEARNING ABOUT OCCUPATIONS

3.7 *Gathering Occupational Information through Courses in Occupations*

Many schools offer courses in occupations as a means of helping youth to learn about occupational opportunities. Sometimes such material is presented or combined in courses known as orientation or guidance. Then, too, it is sometimes presented as a unit of work in a regular course, usually in connection with the social studies or a common-learnings course. Obviously, for best results such a course should be taught by someone who has a thorough knowledge of vocations as they fit into a changing and evolving social order.

Wright [3] suggests that such courses or units of work in occupations are usually organized around the following problems:

1. Self-analysis
2. Survey of occupational life
3. Analysis of occupations
4. Making vocational choices
5. Getting necessary training
6. Getting started on the job

Brockman [4] reports a trend among secondary schools to develop occupational-orientation courses which attempt to interpret work experience to the students. His survey reveals that 40.9 per cent of

[3] Barbara H. Wright. *Practical Handbook for Group Guidance,* p. 109. Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1948.

[4] L. O. Brockman. "Inauguration and Development of Co-operative Work Experience Education in Secondary Schools." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.* Vol. 30, No. 135 (January, 1946), p. 47.

the schools had developed such courses. Topics usually presented were:

1. The best method of going about getting a job
2. Satisfactory occupational adjustment
3. The problems of the first few days on the first job
4. What kind of worker an employer wants
5. The legal relationship between employer and employee
6. Handling employer's customers
7. Managing wages
8. Study of the financial system as it relates to business and industry
9. Business opportunities and problems of starting a business

An integral part of a course in occupations should be the detailed study of one or two occupations by each member of the class. The selection of the occupations to be studied should be made by the students, with the help of the teacher, after the major occupational groups have been studied. Obviously, these selections should be on an individual basis and made in keeping with the guidance data whch have been gathered on each pupil. Significant among these data will be information on what the student's felt needs are, his personal fitness for the vocations chosen, his chances for probable success, and his over-all pattern of potentialities. Aptitude and interest-inventory scores may contribute significantly in the final selections. The student's self-appraisal of his capacities and fitness for the occupations chosen for study is essential in making the selections.

Students studying individual occupations in detail will need some help and guidance in directing their efforts. Students cannot be expected to make a complete job analysis; a somewhat simpler outline is in order. Erickson [5] presents a workable outline for use in studying individual occupations by students as follows:

1. Background of the occupation—development, present importance, social need
2. Employment trends—number of workers, age, sex, need for workers, turnover, future possibilities

[5] Clifford E. Erickson. *A Practical Handbook for School Counselors,* p. 107. New York: The Ronald Press Company. 1949.

3. Types of work—types of jobs, definition of jobs, combinations of responsibilities
4. Qualifications—sex, age, race, physical, mental, social, personal, educational, technical, special skills, union affiliation, license, etc.
5. Preparation—needed and available
6. Experience needed
7. Methods of entering
8. Upgrading procedures and possibilities
9. Related occupations
10. Earnings
11. Working conditions—hours, type of fellow workers, health and safety factors, regularity of employment, location of employment, transportation
12. Legal and organizational aspects—pertinent legislation, union or organizational influence
13. Sources of information about the occupation

The opportunities for providing meaningful orientation to vocational experiences through a course in occupations, orientation, or guidance seem unlimited. See Sec. 2.32 for additional information on orientation courses.

3.8 *Gathering Occupational Information through Visitations*

Actual observation of workers in action combined with the opportunity to ask questions is a most excellent way for students to gather information about occupations. Hoppock [6] states that "the purpose of the group guidance visit is to give students an opportunity to see, hear, feel, and smell the environment in which they will work if they choose the courses, schools, colleges, or occupations visited." Even though a student may not choose to work in the opportunity visited, the visit has value in that it adds to his background of knowledge about the world of work.

Opportunity for students and teacher to converse with workers or persons qualified to answer questions on working conditions, preparation needed, modes of entry, and so forth will add immeasurably to the value of the trip. The preliminary planning by the students and

[6] Robert Hoppock. *Group Guidance,* p. 56. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1949.

teacher may well include an agreement on the type of information which the group intends to gather on the visit. Much of the effectiveness of the trip will be lost unless there is considerable planning by the group and teacher. Before the proposed trip, it would probably be advantageous if the teacher made an exploratory visit alone.

What has been observed and learned on the trip should be used as a basis for individual and group activities after the visit. Group discussions might well center around the various jobs observed and the qualifications of the workers performing them. If some particular job observed holds an unusual interest for some member of the class, this student should be given guidance and help in making a detailed study of the job. This should be followed by self-appraisal on the part of the student to determine fitness for the job.

The visitation approach to learning about occupations has limitations. Only relatively few places can be visited. Hoppock suggests that in choosing places for visitations those in which large numbers of former students are employed should be visited first.[7] Opportunities for visitation will vary from community to community, and each school should take advantage of whatever local opportunities exist. It should be remembered, however, that this is a technique available to even the smaller communities, as they will have several concerns which could profitably be visited.

3.9 *Gathering Occupational Information through Group Conferences*

The group-conference technique has been found valuable as a means of supplementing the information given to a group by the regular teacher. Persons successful in the occupation under discussion may be invited to appear before the group. Part of the time may be used by the speaker, but time should always be allowed for questions by the students and general discussions following the talk. An outline, prepared by the students, listing the points of information which they would like to have covered in the talk should be given to the invited speaker.

Whenever the group-conference idea is carried out on a schoolwide basis it becomes a career conference. Several speakers representing a wide range of vocations are invited. See Sec. 3.12 for additional information on the career conference.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 57.

3.10 *Gathering Occupational Information through Work-experience Programs*

The education of youth, vocationally speaking, need not be confined to formal classroom experiences. It is recognized that the community holds many excellent opportunities for providing vocational exploration and training through the work-experience program. This plan is significant in that the school and community work cooperatively on the enterprise. A work-experience program is an attempt to utilize more fully the resources found in the communities for the education of its youth. The community provides the laboratory in a real-life situation in which boys and girls are given vocational-exploration and training experiences.

Seitz [8] comments upon the cooperative plan as follows:

> Cooperative education carries a connotation familiar to most secondary educators—especially those living in the more urban areas. Many of the larger cities in the United States—and some of the smaller—have instituted a work-study plan which has become known as a plan of cooperative education. This plan has been operated, for the most part, as an adjunct to training afforded in vocational schools. . . The wisdom of allowing students to alternate study with practice in industry and business has been demonstrated. The rewards in motivation and learning have been measurably significant.

Educators realize that actual work experiences on the job, in a more or less normal work situation, constitute a valuable part of a student's training for a vocation. The plan calls for the individual to spend from one-half to three-fourths of his time in school taking regular school subjects and participating in experiences which should facilitate his vocational adjustment. He spends the remainder of the day getting actual work experiences in preparation for the time when he will be qualified by training and age to seek employment as an adult. Such a plan complies with the attendance laws and at the same time keeps the youth busy, learning through worth-while experiences. This is sometimes called the cooperative plan for providing work experiences or occupational exploration and training.

Some writers use the terms part-time education and cooperative

[8] Reynold C. Seitz. "Cooperative Education for Secondary Schools." *The American School Board Journal.* Vol. 109, No. 4 (October, 1944), p. 17.

education synonymously. The motive for the part-time student has, in the past, been largely monetary. The part-time student has actually entered the world of work while the work-experience student still has the transition to make. The cooperative plan assumes a need for work experience to round out a student's training in anticipation of full entry into the field of work for which he has prepared under the supervision of the school and in cooperation with some employer who is willing to assist in his training. Cooperative education attempts to relate study with actual work experience in the training of the adolescent. It is an attempt to solve intelligently and with some practical basis the problem of providing occupational exploration and training, thus facilitating entrance and success in the world of work.

As a rule, a student participating in a cooperative program receives some compensation for work done in the work situation, but less than a person employed full time at the same job. In a survey which he conducted, Brockman found that 87.8 per cent of the schools allowed students to earn money and 91 per cent thought that they should be paid.[9]

The trend is definitely in the direction of allowing school credit for work-experience education. Brockman found that 83 per cent of the schools he surveyed allowed credit and 97 per cent felt that credit should be allowed.[10]

Unless the work-experience program has adequate supervision, it will fail. This is where the coordinator enters the picture. The school coordinator must play a prominent role in the cooperative work-experience plan. He must act as the intermediary between the training facility and the school. He is responsible for integration of the work provided by the school and that provided by the training facility. In the final analysis, he must evaluate the effectiveness of the training and the possibility of the student's success in the vocational world. Brockman found that 81.8 per cent of the schools surveyed employed coordinators.[11] Counseling before placement and during the training period with the student is imperative. This should be provided by the coordinator, if one is employed. Brockman found

[9] Brockman, *op. cit.*, p. 44.
[10] *Ibid.*, p. 42.
[11] *Ibid.*, p. 49.

that 90 per cent of the schools he surveyed carried on counseling activities before and during the period of training.[12]

Care must be taken to see that the student is not exploited by the business, industry, or person providing the work experiences. Business and industrial concerns should be approached on the basis that they can render a real service to the youth of the community in providing occupational exploration and training.

The cooperative work-experience plan for occupational exploration and education has much merit, in that it is a technique just as applicable to smaller schools as it is to the large, urban secondary school. The small community needs mechanics, stenographers, clerks, and a host of other workers, whose preliminary training might be given through the cooperative plan. Mr. William T. Jaques,[13] Guidance Director of the high schools of Hastings, Neb., a Middle Western city of 20,000, has formulated the characteristics of a cooperative work program in a relatively small city as follows:

1. The pupil must be employed in an approved type of work for a minimum of fifteen hours per week.
2. A part of the fifteen hours must be on school time.
3. The pupil must spend one hour a week in a class providing related information.
4. The pupil must fill out a work report each week.
5. The employer provides experience and training for the occupation.
6. The employer reports to the coordinator at regular intervals regarding the progress of the pupil.
7. The employer pays the pupils a regular wage.
8. Whenever problems arise, the coordinator tries to work these out between the pupil and the employer.
9. The coordinator offers counsel and advice to the pupil regarding questions that arise.
10. Through working with other teachers, the coordinator attempts to relate schoolwork to the job.
11. The school gives credit for the work equal to that given for one regular subject.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 54.

[13] William T. Jaques. "Work Experience Program." *Nation's Schools*. Vol. 46, No. 2 (August, 1950), pp. 33–34.

12. The parent gives permission for the pupil to be excused from school to work.

13. Whenever problems arise that require home cooperation in their solution, parents are interviewed by the coordinator.

The principal strengths of a cooperative work-experience program may be summarized as follows:

1. The resources of the community are utilized in the education of youth of the community.
2. The program brings the school and community together in a cooperative program.
3. Valuable exploratory experiences of a vocational nature are provided.
4. Actual acquisition of vocational skills and attitudes is possible in many instances.
5. Transition from school to work is greatly facilitated.

3.11 *Gathering Occupational Information through Community Surveys*

Since the local community will absorb a good proportion of the youth enrolled in the schools, it is only logical that the secondary school should know about the occupational opportunities present in the community. A survey should reveal the number and classification of various occupations as well as the trends in various occupations. These data will have much value in counseling students relative to occupational opportunities present in the community. They should, moreover, have significant value in revealing the need for developing curricular offerings in the schools of an occupational nature.

Community surveys may well be conducted by the members of a group of students interested in vocational guidance. The first-hand experience in gathering the data will have more meaning to the students than textbook material, especially since it comes from the community in which they are living and about which they are best informed.

A variation of the survey technique might be applied to the graduates and drop-outs of the school over a five-year period. Wright[14] states: "By such a survey they will learn for themselves that every

[14] Wright, *op. cit.*, p. 112.

high school graduate doesn't go into law or medicine. Computing the statistics from such a study and comparing the statistics with results of a similar survey of the plans of the class may tend to bring some heads down out of the clouds."

3.12 *Gathering Occupational Information through Career and College Clubs*

Many schools have found it profitable from a guidance standpoint to organize career clubs and college clubs. This is a group guidance technique which may serve a real purpose. The purpose of these groups is to disseminate occupational information and materials designed to assist the members with their vocational decisions and adjustments.

A club may assume the proportions of a group guidance conference if persons conversant with or trained in the various occupations and professions are invited for talks and discussions. Since those students seeking membership in a career club sense a need for help with their occupational problems, the setting seems ideal for some good guidance work.

3.13 *Gathering Occupational Information from Various Government Agencies*

There are several government agencies which prepare and distribute materials of paramount importance in guiding youth. The U.S. Government Printing Office is the central distributor of the materials prepared by all of the agencies; however, in many instances free materials may be received direct from the agency. Most of the agencies prepare lists of their publications giving information as to the nature of the materials, costs, etc. An inquiry addressed to the agency will bring this information.

A list of the agencies and some of the more important materials available from them follows:

A. Federal Security Agency

1. U.S. Office of Education
   a. Publications of the Office of Education. A cumulative list of publications with subject index from January 1, 1942, through 1951

b. Guidance leaflets
c. Various bibliographies

2. Public Health Service
   a. Mental Health series
   b. Other leaflets dealing with various public health opportunities
3. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation
   a. Various pamphlets on the vocational adjustment of the physically handicapped

B. Department of Labor

1. U.S. Employment Service
   a. *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.* This publication defines and classifies almost 30,000 different occupations. Vol. 1, *Definitions of Titles,* is significant in that it contains the definitions and code numbers. It was revised in 1949. Vol. II, *Occupational Classification,* gives the classification structure of the dictionary. It is exceedingly valuable in classifying occupational material or in finding related occupations for comparison. This volume was also revised in 1949. Vol. IV, *Entry-occupational Classification,* is used in classifying beginning workers.
   b. Occupational Guides series
   c. Description of Professions series
   d. Vocational Booklets series
   e. Individual Job Descriptions series
   f. The Labor Market, a monthly magazine
2. Women's Bureau
   a. The Outlook for Women in Science series
   b. Leaflets on careers for women
   c. Various charts on women's occupations
3. Bureau of Labor Statistics
   a. *Occupational Outlook Handbook.* Published in 1951, this handbook is regarded as an exceedingly important instrument in guiding youth. It attempts to predict the trends for the future for over 400 different occupations. It is keyed to the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.*
   b. Occupational Outlook Bulletins series
   c. Occupational Outlook Summary series
   d. A series of wall charts which graphically display valuable information on selected vocations
   e. Wage studies of various kinds are continually prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Summaries may be found in Union

Rate Studies, Occupational Wage Rate Studies, Nation-wide Industry Studies, and Industry-locality Studies—publications of the Bureau.

4. Bureau of Apprenticeship
   a. National Standard Series, a series of pamphlets on skilled occupations
   b. Numerous other miscellaneous publications on apprenticeship training in skilled occupations

C. U.S. Department of Agriculture
   a. Career Opportunity series
   b. Farmers' Bulletin series
   c. Numerous other publications of value may be found in a bibliographical publication available from this office

D. U.S. Department of Commerce
   a. *Census Publications: Catalog and Subject Guide.* This annual publication prepared by the Bureau of the Census lists and gives descriptive information on the many publications which are available and which have value in guiding youth.
   b. *Publications Relating to Small Business.* This publication lists the several handbooks available on the planning and operation of small businesses.
   c. Basic Information Sources series. A valuable series giving information on various business opportunities.

E. U.S. Civil Service Commission
   a. A number of separate booklets telling of opportunities in civil service are available
   b. Periodic announcements of examinations for various types of federal employment
   c. Class Specifications series. Descriptive material on various types of federal employment.

3.14 *Gathering Occupational Information from Private Publishers*

There is a vast amount of occupational-information material available from private publishers. Out of the following list of publishers, those marked with an asterisk are known to have occupational monographs:

* Bellman Publishing Co., Boston.
* B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, Washington, D.C.

* Candid Career Books, New York.
Charm Magazine, New York.
Chronicle Press, Moravia, N.Y.
* Commonwealth Book Co., Chicago.
* Field Enterprises, Chicago.
* Glamour Magazine, New York.
* Institute for Research, Chicago.
Ladies Home Journal, Philadelphia.
Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York.
Mademoiselle, New York.
* Personnel Services, Inc., Peapack, N.J.
* Research Publishing Co., Boston.
* Science Research Associates, Chicago.
* Vocational Guidance Manuals, New York.

3.15 *Gathering Occupational Information from Professional and Industrial Organizations*

There are many professional and industrial organizations which issue materials having guidance value. Some of them issue free material. Space will not permit inclusion of a total list, but comprehensive lists appear in the following publications:

Baer, Max F., and Edward C. Roeber. *Occupational Information.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1951. (A list of professional organizations and addresses appears on pp. 232–250.)

Board of Vocational Education. *Handbook for Providing Guidance Services.* Springfield, Ill. (A list of trade and professional organizations and addresses appears on pp. 48–52.)

Department of Public Instruction. *Guidance for Secondary Schools.* Des Moines, Iowa: Department of Public Instruction. 1948. (A list of trade and professional organizations and addresses appears on pp. 95–100.)

3.16 *Gathering Occupational Information through Occupational Indexes*

Files of occupational information soon become obsolete unless new materials are continuously added. The best way to keep abreast of new materials and revisions of old materials is to subscribe to one or more indexes. The following are representative of those available:

Guidance Index. Published by Science Research Associates, Chicago. Issued monthly, September through May.

Occupational Index. Published by Personnel Services, Inc., Peapack, N.J. Issued quarterly.

Selected Government Publications. Issued by the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. No charge.

Career Index. Published by Chronicle Press, Moravia, N.Y.

3.17 *Gathering Occupational Information through Films and Slides*

The use of films and slides as media for imparting occupational information has gained wide acclaim. This is an excellent way of bringing observations of men and women at work into the schoolroom. Many educational and commercial concerns produce materials of this type which may be rented or purchased. Then, too, many industries and businesses have prepared materials of this classification which are available without charge.

The list of organizations and business concerns which follows may help in the location of audio-visual materials. Those marked with an asterisk are known to publish information which helps one locate generally available materials.

* American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.
Castle Films, New York.
Coronet Films, Chicago.
Dudley Pictures Corporation, New York.
* Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wis.
Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill.
* H. W. Wilson Company, New York.
Jam Handy Organization, Detroit, Mich.
Society for Visual Education, Inc., Chicago.
U.S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service, Motion Picture Section, Washington, D.C.
Vocational Guidance Films, Inc., Chicago.

3.18 *Gathering Occupational Information through Radio and Television*

The radio is an effective means of bringing occupational information into the classroom. In many instances, a program can be received

direct from the broadcasting station, while in other instances recordings are available from distributing agencies. The recording of a program on some phase of guidance has advantages, in that the time of use may be controlled by the school group. Programs with guidance value are informational programs, dramatizations, and programs centered around some phase of personal adjustment.

Television, which is still in the embryonic stage so far as school use is concerned, promises to be one of the most effective and realistic means of helping youth gain occupational information yet devised.

Lerner [15] suggests that televised programs might take the following forms:

1. Unrehearsed programs of people at work
2. Rehearsed programs of people at work
3. Showing of occupational films
4. Presentation of interviews

Television presentation of occupational information holds possibilities for parents as well as for students. Since television goes into the home, parents can gain valuable insights into occupational possibilities for their children.

The addition of three-dimensional photography and color to television should make the medium even more effective. Education is certain to have a place in television, since the Federal Communications Commission has allotted a generous number of channels for educational use.

3.19 *Occupational-information Materials and College Selection*

Helping students to select colleges in keeping with their needs should be an integral part of the vocational-guidance program. Adequate materials about colleges must be at hand, including current catalogues and other materials which colleges prepare.

Information on various colleges will vary from school to school depending, to some extent, upon the locality. There are a number of publications with some of which each school should be supplied. Excellent lists of such materials appear in the following publications:

[15] Leon L. Lerner. "Television and Occupational Information." *Occupations.* Vol. 28, No. 5 (February, 1950), p. 299.

Baer, Max F., and Edward C. Roeber. *Occupational Information*, pp. 258–270. Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1951.

Erickson, Clifford E. *A Practical Handbook for School Counselors*, pp. 87–90. New York: The Ronald Press Company. 1949.

ORGANIZING AND FILING OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION

3.20 *Organizing a Library of Occupational Information*

Knowing what materials to select for a library of occupational information is exceedingly important. There are certain types of information concerning which all secondary schools should have some material.

Brammer and Williams [16] enumerate the fundamental elements of a vocational library as follows:

1. A vertical file of classified occupational information on specific jobs
2. School and college catalogues
3. A browsing shelf and "idea" materials for those still undecided
4. Business and school directories
5. Special file on such subjects as how to get jobs, apprenticeship standards, minority problems, labor problems, wage and price trends, and regional business information
6. Counselor's professional library containing reprints and texts of value to the staff for reference and professional advancement

For the school planning to start a library of occupational information, Bedinger [17] recommends the following:

1. One pamphlet on each of one hundred occupations, beginning with those jobs in greatest local demand, those in which students express an interest, and those that may stimulate students' interest
2. One pamphlet on each of the following topics:
   a. Employment trends, national and local
   b. Choosing a vocation
   c. Getting a job
   d. Good study and work habits

[16] Lawrence Brammer and Milton Williams, Jr. "Organization and Operation of a Vocational Library." *Occupations*. Vol. 29, No. 3 (December, 1950), p. 181.

[17] Anne Davis Bedinger. "The Occupational Information Library: A Manual." *Work and Training*. Vol. 8, No. 2 (October, 1948), pp. 1–2.

e. State and federal labor laws
f. Services of government agencies concerned with employment and worker welfare
g. Apprenticeship requirements and opportunities

3. Catalogues from:
   a. All colleges and universities in the state
   b. Other colleges and universities attended by the school's graduates
   c. State and nearby trade and technical schools
   d. Six recognized business schools and colleges
   e. All approved schools of nursing in the state
4. Directories of:
   a. Colleges and universities
   b. Trade and technical schools
   c. Correspondence schools
5. Information on scholarships and loan funds available to the school's students
6. A subscription to at least one professional journal for the faculty
7. A subscription to at least one periodical index of vocational and guidance information

3.21 *Vertical Filing Systems for Unbound Materials*

Unless each school develops some functional system of classifying and filing unbound occupational materials, it is largely a waste of time and effort to gather them. These materials must be immediately accessible if they are to be of value in counseling students. The vertical-file approach to the filing problem seems best.

Schools can either build their own files or buy them from commercial concerns. The homemade file can be organized either on an alphabetical basis or on the DOT plan as used in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles.* Since most counselors would want to make use of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* and other materials using the DOT plan of classifying materials, it would seem sensible to build or buy a system using this plan of filing. The plan is not difficult to understand; in a relatively short time, counselors and students could learn to use it. It cannot be denied, however, that an alphabetized plan is easy to organize, use, and maintain. Commercial plans are available as follows:

Michigan Plan for Filing and Indexing Occupational Information, published by the Sturgis Printing Company, Sturgis, Mich. This

plan is based on an adaptation of the DOT system of classification.

New York Department of Education Plan, published by the Chronicle Press, Moravia, N.Y. This plan is an adaptation of the DOT system.

SRA Occupational Filing Plan, published by Science Research Associates, Chicago. The plan of organization is alphabetical. A guide book is furnished with the plan.

THE TESTING PROGRAM AS A PART OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

3.22 *The Use of Tests and Vocational Guidance*

Tests, scales, and inventories of various kinds should play an important role in functional vocational guidance. These instruments were discussed and illustrated in Secs. 1.10 to 1.23. Whatever value they have in helping students to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses should be utilized to the fullest.

COUNSELING IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

3.23 *The Counseling Interview*

Many counseling situations may be wholly or almost wholly concerned with the vocational problems of the student. Self-appraisal, choice of a vocation, the formulation of a plan of action, and entrance into the world of work are vocational problems which will occupy the center of attention in many counseling situations. The importance of and the several aspects of the counseling interview were discussed in some detail in Secs. 1.4, 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3.

PLACEMENT AND FOLLOW-UP SERVICES AND STUDIES

3.24 *Vocational Guidance through Placement Services*

The individual student's transition from school to work is an important step in his life. It is one with which the school should concern itself. Whether the school has any help from community agencies in the matter of placement will depend upon the individual community. The responsibility of the school will be lightened somewhat if there are community agencies rendering placement services to youth.

For the school to disclaim any responsibility for the placement of its product would mean that much valuable information about the individual—his capacities, interests, achievements, etc.—would be virtually wasted, at a crucial time when it could be of the greatest value. Placement on the job is the culmination of a number of years of painstaking planning and counseling.

3.25 *Centralization of Job Placement*

Placement activities require continuous contact with prospective employers, which can best be maintained if the school has a central placement office around which placement activities revolve. This arrangement does not mean that only one counselor or person shoulders the entire responsibility for placement. Teachers of special subjects, counselors, and other persons should be constantly aware of the need of finding job openings for students. Placement is a cooperative venture; coordination and direction of the function are centered in one person who is assigned the responsibility of directing the service. Successful placement practices demand that placement officers actively seek out job opportunities for their students. The program must be aggressive and thorough. Those persons seeking workers in the community should be made to feel that they can get real help from the school's placement office in finding capable workers to meet their needs.

3.26 *Cooperation of School with Public Employment Offices*

The Public Employment Service, a part of the U.S. Employment Service, set up to help employers and employees with their problems, can be of real service to the local school not only in actual placement of students but also in providing information on employment trends, etc. The school's placement service, in return, can help the Public Employment Service by providing valuable data about the students which the school has gathered. Thus, the school and community placement facilities can work cooperatively on the placement of youth to the mutual benefit of school and community placement programs. The cooperation of any organization in the community concerned with youth should be enlisted to help in placement problems.

3.27 *Placement Services for All Drop-outs and Graduates*

No segment of the school population needing help in placement should be overlooked. Placement of the early leaver may entail greater effort than the placement of the graduate because the early leaver may lack needed training. Nevertheless, the needs of this type of student should be met through the placement office. The student who has once been placed by the school and for some reason needs a new placement should also feel free to seek help from the school. It is only logical to conclude, however, that the Public Employment Service should assume more of the responsibility in placing students after the initial placement than the school.

3.28 *Placement-service Records*

Records used in placement services must be well planned and organized to carry out the placement function. Records are needed for registration of pupils, job orders from employers, work experiences of pupils, and contacts with prospective employers. The records should be kept as simple as possible yet adequate to do a thorough job of placement.

3.29 *Characteristics of an Adequate Placement Service*

Here are the minimum essentials of a placement service as outlined by Erickson:[18]

1. The school cooperates with the Public Employment Service by having pupils register with this agency and by furnishing it with information concerning the pupils.
2. Pupils are placed in part-time or full-time jobs during vacations.
3. Drop-outs are helped to find work.
4. Information is given to employers concerning trained workers available—typists, stenographers, machine workers, etc.
5. The community is canvassed for available jobs, and the school keeps a continuous record of job opportunities.
6. The school keeps in constant touch with potential employers.
7. Careful attention is given to personal characteristics in recommending pupils.
8. Records pertinent to employability are available. These records

[18] Erickson, *op. cit.*, pp. 192–193.

show physical characteristics, special abilities, school grades, home conditions, work experience, social and economic status.

9. The school keeps informed concerning labor laws affecting minors.

10. Placement is discussed each year before Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions, Chamber of Commerce, and other business groups, as well as the PTA.

11. Cases of pupils who have been discharged are investigated. No opinion is formed until facts are established.

12. Pupils are given information and assistance in learning how to get a job, hold and advance on the job, and transfer to another job.

3.30 *Follow-up Services and Studies*

The work of the school is not completed when the student has been placed on a job or goes to college. The follow-up service, performed on an individual basis, should continue for some time. Follow-up services should not be confused with follow-up studies. Myers [19] states:

> Follow-up studies must not be confused with, nor substituted for, the follow-up service. The former is a mass undertaking and the latter an individualized effort. The former is soon finished and gives a still picture of conditions at the time the study was made. The latter continues over a considerable period of time and gives a moving picture of conditions and needs at the same time it serves these needs.

Students should always be made to feel that they can return to the school for help. The school knows most about the individual, and in many instances will be in a position to render real service. Perhaps the student has been unable to hold a job and needs further counseling of a personal nature followed by replacement in a new situation. Perhaps the student was unable to make a satisfactory adjustment in the college chosen initially and needs help in selecting another or in making the transition to a job. Perhaps the student has encountered new and different conditions in his environment which are precipitating social and personal maladjustments. Concerning these the school can offer help. The responsibility of the school does not end with the

[19] George E. Myers. "Follow-up: The Stepchild of the Guidance Family." *Occupations.* Vol. 27, No. 2 (November, 1948), p. 100.

dropping out or graduation of the student. Whenever it is possible for the school to help a former student, it should not hesitate to do so.

Follow-up studies are also important. Usually drop-outs and graduates over a period of years are studied. In this way, the school gathers much information of inestimable value to the school in revising its program to meet the needs of the students better.

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books and Pamphlets

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CHAPTER 4 *Helping Students through Grouping Techniques*

4.1 *Guidance and the Grouping of Students*

If meaningful growth experiences are to be provided for large numbers of children, the children must be grouped in some manner. Even though we may be committed to individualization in our schools, we cannot carry it to the extent that we provide an individual teacher for each child. Nor would we want to go to these extremes. Under such an arrangement, the individual child would fail to develop group competencies which come through group interaction. Our problem, then, resolves itself around the need to guide the individual pupil into the group or groups in which he is afforded the greatest opportunity for total growth possible at any given stage of his education.

When pupils are no longer placed in groups for administrative expediency but are guided into groups planned for the definite purpose of meeting growth needs of individual pupils, then guidance is present. The mechanical herding of children from group to group without adequate consideration of the outcomes for each child has no place in modern education. Grouping of children must always be based upon sound principles of guidance, since human personalities are involved. Guiding pupils into groups is not synonymous with teaching but is inextricably interwoven with it. Every grouping process should be evaluated in terms of total pupil growth and development.

4.2 *Homogeneity in Ability and Achievement in Grade Groups*

Educators have attempted to guide pupils into homogeneous groups of one type or another for generations. The creation of the system of grading pupils according to arbitrary grade standards was thought by leading educators at the time to be the answer to the problem. Research has shown us that there is very little homogeneity, so far as ability to learn and achievement is concerned, in a graded group.

Lindquist [1] frankly states that "since the beginning of educational measurement no fact has been more frequently revealed, and its implications more commonly ignored, than the great variability in the achievement of pupils in the same grade." Lindquist [2] further summarizes the findings of the research which has been done to date with the following facts:

> The range in achievement (2nd to 98th percentile) at the first-grade level is between three and four years; at the fourth-grade level, between five and six years; and at the sixth-grade level, between seven and eight years, in the areas of reading comprehension, vocabulary, the mechanics of English composition, literary knowledge, science, geography and history. In arithmetic reasoning and computation the range is somewhat less, between six and seven years at the sixth-grade level.

It is obvious, then, that the graded system does not provide the homogeneity in ability and achievement that it was once thought to provide. Where retardation was practiced in the traditional grade group, even homogeneity with regard to social development of the children did not exist. If we want homogeneity of groups within a standard grade, therefore, it must be provided by some means within the grade.

4.3 *Homogeneity in General Ability Groups*

The practice of forming sections or ability groups in a grade or class is employed by some schools today. This practice has developed and is justified by those who use it on the ground that pupils do not vary appreciably from trait to trait on a given level. It is believed

[1] E. F. Lindquist. *Educational Measurement,* p. 10. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1951.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 11.

by these people that there is direct relationship among the various traits. That is, an individual rating high in one subject or skill may be expected to rate high in all other subjects or skills.

This hypothesis does not seem to stand up very well under research, according to a number of investigations that have been made in recent years. Chief among these researches is the work done by Walter Cook,[3] who found that

> . . . Under the most favorable circumstances, that is, when pupils are grouped in X, Y and Z fashion on the basis of an achievement test battery which is heavily weighted in favor of reading and arithmetic scores, we may expect a reduction of about twenty per cent in reading and arithmetic variability. The extreme X and Z groups will overlap approximately eighty per cent. Instead of a range of eight years in reading ability at the sixth grade level the teacher has, after grouping, a range of 6.4 years. In other subjects such as art, music, handwriting and mechanic arts, the reduction of range approaches zero.

The overlapping between the X and Y and the Y and Z groups would be even greater than the 80 per cent which prevails between the X and Z groups which represent the two extremes.

It is doubtful whether a narrowing of the range of abilities or traits by only 20 per cent between the extremes of a heterogeneous group is sufficient to justify the practice of ability grouping. The value of having the individual pupil grow in a normal social climate afforded in a heterogeneous group would probably be greater than the slight gain offered by grouping on the basis of ability. This becomes even more true in the light of the newer trends and developments in curriculum development with its emphasis upon meaningful experiences for the individual child in a normal social situation.

Attacking the practice of segregating groups of children on the basis of ability, Jennings [4] states that

> . . . when segregation according to ability holds through all the grades, the result is a hierarchy of the ways students place each other. . . . Such divisions can be particularly dangerous, from the standpoint of developing

[3] Walter W. Cook. "Individual Differences and Curriculum Practice." *The Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 39, No. 3 (March, 1948), p. 143.

[4] Helen H. Jennings. *Sociometry in Group Relations,* p. 9. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1948.

relations, when children from certain sections of the population or ethnic backgrounds are 'guided' into a given course without regard to aptitudes or intellectual grasp. More serious, however, is the fact that segregation makes for a certain consciousness within each subdivision at the expense of the rest. The others tend to be regarded as 'not the thing' or perhaps even as 'the enemy.' . . . The loss to individual personality as well as to group life is felt on both sides of the arbitrary division, and scope for living is limited within, as well as between, the several segments.

4.4 *Informal Ability Grouping within a Heterogeneous Group*

If research tells us that there is little to be gained by grouping pupils on the basis of ability for the over-all program, then the question arises as to what is the best procedure for grouping. Whether the group is graded or ungraded it would seem that the answer lies in the formation of informal ability or trait groups within the heterogeneous group.

Cook [5] states that "when grouping is practiced, it must be on the basis of status and needs in specific learning areas, that is, pupils must be grouped differently in each subject area." Homogeneity on the basis of a single need or trait may be easily obtained. The teacher merely groups the members of his class or group into smaller groups on the basis of the pupils' needs in a particular learning situation. Each group works on materials suited to the needs of its members. New groupings must be formed for each new activity or learning situation, where homogeneity is desired. Obviously, membership of groups will vary from subject to subject or from activity to activity. A pupil may be in an advanced group in one experience and in a slow group for another, depending entirely upon his needs and abilities. The number of groups to be formed will be determined largely by the needs of the pupils and the number of growth levels the teacher feels he needs to do an effective job of teaching. It is not uncommon to find from three to five groups formed in a single class. An imbalance with regard to sex should be guarded against in forming the groups. Groups may be formed not only for different subjects or activities but for various phases of a certain subject or activity. Materials presented to the various informal groups should be adjusted to their needs and abilities. Frequent use of evaluation techniques

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 143.

such as achievement tests, past records, and teacher judgments may be used to denote pupil progress and the need for regrouping.

Since actual grouping takes place only during a learning situation and all children quickly revert to a normal situation upon its completion, the plan can be commended. Keeping each child in a setting with his peers and at the same time making provision for meaningful experiences on his own level is a technique readily accepted by progressive leaders in education.

It would seem advantageous in some of the groupings for pupils to form small groups within the larger groups in carrying out assignments as a group. Homogeneity would certainly exist so far as group acceptance is concerned. Where social affinity cuts across ability or achievement levels, the resulting group would be heterogeneous. Cole [6] points out that "by permitting pupils to form groups of their own volition the brighter students help the poorer students." The use of this technique may have sociometric possibilities for the teacher in that he can gain insight into the social structure of his group.

Hamalainen [7] states that

> . . . modern educational thought favors heterogeneous grouping, that is, placing children with a wide range of abilities in each class, as opposed to having "fast groups" and "slow groups." A heterogeneous group helps provide a more normal social situation for children of elementary school age. It encourages an atmosphere in which all children are given the opportunity to work with others of varied and diverse abilities.

Certainly we need not fear the wide range of abilities as a deterrent to individual pupil growth. Edmiston and Benfer found that when pupils were grouped on the basis of IQ, the results indicated better reading achievement in groups with an average IQ range of 40 points than in groups with an average range of 30 points.[8]

The guidance of children into several different ability, achievement, or interest groups during the day provides opportunity for all to assume leadership roles of some type. This is valuable training

[6] Mildred H. Cole. "Group Arrangements for Classrooms." *The Grade Teacher.* Vol. 68, No. 5 (January, 1951), p. 6.

[7] Arthur E. Hamalainen. "Grouping Pupils." *Nation's Schools.* Vol. 45, No. 6 (June, 1950), pp. 34–35.

[8] R. W. Edmiston and J. F. Benfer. "The Relationship between Group Achievement and Range of Abilities within the Groups." *Journal of Educational Research.* Vol. 42, No. 7 (March, 1949), p. 548

for effective citizenship and the acceptance of responsibility in a democratic society. Group memberships must obviously be kept flexible to provide for the guidance of the individual pupil from group to group as his needs dictate. Informal ability grouping is certainly child-centered and departs sharply from the traditional subject-matter-centered situation.

No plan of grouping pupils is more applicable to all schools regardless of size or organization than the technique of informally grouping pupils within a heterogeneous group. It is a technique available to every teacher in America. It is educationally sound in principle and democratically sound in practice. Even though this plan of grouping is especially applicable to the elementary school situation, it can also be used on the secondary school level.

4.5 *Vertical and Horizontal Grouping of Pupils*

Vertical classification of children attempts to bring together pupils of approximately the same status.[9] The creation of a graded system illustrates this point. The ordinary bases for determining grade groups or levels determine the formation of these groups. Horizontal classification or grouping means "that on any grade level the pupils are further divided according to ability, or rate of learning." [10] This may apply to groupings according to a common need or trait either on a class or group basis or within a class or group.

4.6 *Grouping Pupils According to Age Groups*

There is much concrete evidence to indicate that schools are moving away from grade groups toward age groups. This is particularly true in the early years of the elementary schools, in which the appearance of ungraded groups and age groups is becoming more common. What has caused this trend? Lindquist [11] points out that "both intelligence and achievement test data show age groups no more variable than grade groups. Hence this grouping will not materially increase the range of ability with which the teacher must cope." Guiding pupils into groups known as five-year-olds, six-year-olds, etc., indi-

[9] C. C. Ross. *Measurement in Today's Schools*, p. 441. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1947.

[10] *Ibid.*

[11] Lindquist, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

cates that at least the child will be in a socially acceptable group. Lindquist [12] further emphasizes that

> . . . in general social intercourse during the years of maturation, the traits most important to the child in determining membership and status in a congenial group are chronological age and general physical development. Together with social development these are also the most obvious. In a graded school it is tremendously important to a child that he be grouped with his peers.

Grouping pupils by age provides some homogeneity. Why not start with this type of grouping and then follow up with informal groupings within the group to provide homogeneity for the educational development and achievement of children? Grouping by grade levels merely clouds the issue, so far as meeting the growth needs of individual boys and girls is concerned.

4.7 *Guiding Pupils into Ungraded or Unclassified Groups*

The educational thought underlying ungraded or unclassified groups is identical with that presented in the discussion on age groups. The principal difference lies in the fact that this presentation endorses the guidance of children into larger units of the school comprising two or more age groups instead of a single age group. Three integrated, ungraded units in the elementary school have already been developed in some schools. The unit, shorn of all grade designations, which has appeared most frequently is the primary school or unit composed usually of some combination of six-, seven- and eight-years-olds and which correspond to grades 1, 2, and 3 in the graded school. Kelley [13] states that the formation of ungraded groups "is a means of adjusting our teaching and administrative procedures to meet the differing social, mental and physical capacities among our children. It is an administrative tool to encourage and promote a philosophy of continuous growth." The plan allows ample administrative flexibility to carry out a program designed to meet the continuous growth needs of children. It affords opportunity for the teacher to be with an individual pupil for as long as three years. The teacher ascertains and studies the pattern of abilities and needs of

[12] *Ibid.*

[13] Florence C. Kelley. "Doing Away with Grade Levels." *Journal of the National Education Association.* Vol. 37, No. 4 (April, 1948), p. 222.

each individual child when the child enters his group and plans experiences for the individual child in the light of his findings. Experiences may be chosen according to each child's needs from the very beginning, so the child senses that he is making progress. All educational experiences are adjusted to the child's level at all times. Jones [14] concludes that "children taught on their individual levels regardless of grade placement make a greater amount of growth than comparable pupils taught as a group the curriculum prescribed for their grade with only minor and incidental provisions for individual differences." The ungraded group seems to lend itself exceedingly well to Jones's findings, since grade levels are disregarded altogether.

Continuous progress in a socially acceptable climate for the individual child seems to be the central strength of the ungraded group. Fries [15] states that the ungraded group "permits pupils to move through the program in a continuous flow as their needs are known and speed of growth indicates."

There is need for research on the ungraded group idea to determine its effectiveness. Polkinghorne has attempted to evaluate the value of the Primary School in the Laboratory School organized in conjunction with the University of Chicago. She has attempted to gather and organize the reactions of students enrolled in the school and of the teachers and parents of children in the school.

Children's reactions to the ungraded school are as follows:

1. Children like the variety of interests represented.
2. Children form lasting friendships over the years.
3. The atmosphere is more active as older children offer worthwhile suggestions.
4. The children work and play together harmoniously.
5. Sociometric tests show the presence of good relations.
6. Younger and older children sit together at the tables.
7. When given a choice, more children want to go into rooms with dual groups.[16]

[14] Daisy M. Jones. "An Experiment in Adaptation to Individual Differences." *The Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 39, No. 5 (May, 1948), p. 270.

[15] H. C. Fries. "A Continuous Progress School." *American School Board Journal*. Vol. 119, No. 1 (July, 1949), p. 52.

[16] Ada R. Polkinghorne. "Grouping Children in the Primary Grades." *Elementary School Journal*. Vol. 50, No. 9 (May, 1950), p. 506.

Teacher reactions to the ungraded group are as follows:

1. Grade levels are artificial.
2. Children mature at such different rates that it is easier to avoid unfair competition, tension, and emotional upsets in ungraded groups.
3. Children should be placed where they can excel and be excelled without consideration for grade lines.
4. We assume there is no such thing as homogeneous grouping and adapt to a range of various abilities over a five-year span.
5. There are as wide differences in the normal class as in the combination group.[17]

Parent reactions to the ungraded group are as follows:

1. Most of these parents liked having their children with the same teacher for two years.
2. Most of the children of these parents chose their friends from both age groups in their own home room, and fewer children choose theirs from the other four classrooms.
3. Most of the parents were satisfied with the progress their children made in the areas of learning listed in the questionnaire.
4. Most of the children in the primary group look forward to going to school.
5. Most of the parents were pleased with the amount of individual help their children received.
6. It seemed evident, at home, that most of these children made an easy adjustment to grade 3.
7. Half the third-grade parents who answered the question thought that their children's experience in the primary group helped their adjustment in grade 3.[18]

In addition to the organization of the primary school on an ungraded basis, it is evident that educators are thinking in terms of ungraded groups on the preprimary level and on the intermediate level. Children with chronological ages of nine, ten, and eleven, who normally would be classified in grades 4, 5, and 6 in a graded

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 507.

[18] Ada R. Polkinghorne. "Parents and Teachers Appraise Primary-grade Grouping." *Elementary School Journal.* Vol. 51, No. 5 (January, 1951), p. 273.

school, might well be organized into an ungraded group and termed the intermediate school. The NEA Research Division [19] reports that, of the cities surveyed, "approximately three cities in four among those in which divisions have begun to replace certain grades report that this practice is 'on the way in' in their school systems." All the advantages expressed in regard to the primary school would apply to the intermediate school on an ungraded basis.

It is going to be somewhat more difficult to overcome the barriers which stand in the way of organizing a preprimary school on an ungraded basis. In the first place, many schools do not accept the responsibility of providing growth experiences for children much below six years of age. Many are still without kindergartens, prekindergartens, nursery schools, and child-care centers. That there is much value in such programs cannot be questioned. The NEA Research Division [20] states that

> . . . during the war years considerable impetus was given to the provision of school opportunities for children too young to enter the regular primary grades. . . . The excellent results achieved in such schools convinced many educational leaders that the school program ought to be extended downward to make such facilities regularly available to young children, at least on an optional or voluntary attendance basis.

The American Association of School Administrators [21] gives added impetus to the idea of forming integrated units by stating that although "social planning for the education of young children has been all too rarely done, there seems at present a healthy growth toward a unified primary school, including both nursery and kindergarten units." A unified school made up of nursery-kindergarten units is not an idle dream. If children could be guided into such units at the age of two and three years and kept there until they matured sufficiently to enter the primary school, much could be done in providing guidance and direction during these very formative years. A variation of this program is evidenced by the fact that some schools now have two-year kindergartens. Schools, to a large extent, have

[19] Research Division, National Education Association. "Trends in City-school Organization 1938 to 1948." *Research Bulletin.* Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), p. 18.

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 12.

[21] American Association of School Administrators. *The Expanding Role of Education,* p. 43. Twenty-sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1948.

looked to outside agencies for the financial support of educational facilities for preprimary children. Perhaps the time is not far distant when the public school will extend its program downward and establish units based upon child-development research. A school should never attempt to take over the responsibility of the home but should supplement what the home is doing. The entire program must be focused on child needs and development.

The possibilities within ungraded groups to foster and promote the continuous-progress philosophy as evidenced in modern educational thought has been developed in Secs. 5.4 and 5.5.

4.8 *Guiding Pupils into Special Groups*

Many schools have developed programs which provide for special grouping of children having special needs. These are children who deviate from the normal to such a degree that their needs may best be met in a special class or school. In some instances, the deviation is so pronounced that the child is grouped full time in the special arrangement; in other cases, the grouping is only partial and the child spends some of his time with a normal group. Types of children which present this need are (1) physically handicapped children, (2) slow-learning children, (3) children with special gifts and talents, and (4) children with pronounced emotional and social imbalances. Complete or partial segregation of special-class children from the normal group can be justified if their needs cannot be adequately met in the normal group and if the special facility has more to offer in the way of meeting a particular child's needs. The pros and cons of guiding children into special groups are discussed in Secs. 6.66, 7.8, 8.6, and 9.5.

4.9 *Guiding Students into Remedial Groups*

Students presenting deficiencies in certain school subjects may well be guided into special remedial groups or classes. That there is a minority group in need of special assistance cannot be questioned. Harris [22] reports: "At present it seems safe to conclude that between 10 and 15 per cent of elementary school children have at least mild reading disabilities, and that boys outnumber girls in frequency of

[22] Albert J. Harris. *How to Increase Reading Ability*, pp. 14–15. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc. 1947.

reading disabilities about three to one." Deficiencies in reading are not necessarily confined to the elementary school level. Gray [23] states: "Records of the achievements of pupils show that from 20 to 30 per cent of the pupils who enter either the junior or senior high school read so poorly that they can engage in required reading activities only with great difficulties." Witty [24] likewise concludes that "a wide range in ability and a large amount of reading retardation will also be found in every class throughout the senior high school."

Special remedial classes may be formed either on the elementary or secondary school levels. The NEA Research Division reports a trend toward a wider use of remedial classes, particularly for reading and arithmetic. Fifty-two per cent of the cities questioned by the NEA Research Division report that the practice is "on the way in" while only 2 per cent indicate that it was "on the way out." [25]

Reading and arithmetic, in particular, are key skill subjects. If the child presents deficiencies in them to the extent that his general schoolwork is placed in jeopardy and if the regular teacher is unable to make adequate provisions within the regular classrooms, then the special remedial class may be the answer. Children with the same deficiency may be grouped together, or children presenting a wide range of deficiencies may be grouped together if individualized materials are available. Since the child is separated from the regular class for a relatively short time each week, it is doubtful that any social imbalance will be created. Children should be guided into groups of this category only for that time necessary to bring them up to a level of proficiency which will permit them to carry on in the regular classroom with profit.

Much remedial work may be carried on by the regular teacher by grouping those with certain deficiencies in small informal groups within the regular class. Commenting upon remedial work in reading, Strang [26] states:

[23] William S. Gray. "The Language Arts—Reading," *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*, p. 138. Joint Yearbook of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. Washington: National Education Association. 1939.

[24] Paul Witty. *Reading in Modern Education*, p. 178. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1949.

[25] *Research Bulletin*, p. 20.

[26] Ruth Strang. "Why Special Classes for Seriously Retarded Readers?" *Education*. Vol. 68, No. 10 (June, 1948), p. 604.

In a sense, the small groups within a regular classroom are special reading groups—and very effective. If teachers on all grade levels individualized their instruction in the way that gifted primary teachers do, and if they had suitable reading materials and equipment, it would not be necessary to form special groups for retarded readers outside the regular classroom.

Following Strang's suggestion, it would be possible for every school system, regardless of size, to enter into remedial programs for pupils who present deficiencies. This does not necessarily mean that the work of special remedial teachers would be ended. The larger schools might well employ them to work with and guide the regular classroom teachers in their remedial programs and to work individually or in small groups with those pupils presenting deficiencies too pronounced for the regular teacher to handle satisfactorily. It should be emphasized, however, that any remedial program which facilitates the development of individual pupils deserves encouragement, whether it is carried on within the regular classroom or within the special class. Programs within the regular classroom should be attempted before programs are set up outside the classroom.

4.10 *Guiding Pupils into Curricular Groups on the Basis of Need*

Pupils enter the secondary school presenting a variety of needs and differences. The typical college-preparatory curriculum is designed to meet the needs of those who are planning to go to college; it does not meet the needs of those who want to go into business, industry, or some other type of work. The needs of the college-preparatory student in taking a particular course in mathematics may be different from those of the student who intends to enter a vocation. Perhaps entirely different courses in mathematics should be taught. It is true that all who enter the secondary school need common learnings, but over and above this type of general education there must be a selection of curricular experiences for each student according to his needs.

Adequate guidance services must be provided to help each student understand his own pattern of abilities and needs before a selection is made. It is a tragic mistake to require all secondary school pupils to follow the same curricular pattern. The smaller schools, with their limited faculties and facilities, offer limited opportunities for the grouping of pupils on the basis of need. This type of grouping should

not be confused with so-called ability grouping, in which pupils in a particular subject are grouped in sections according to some agreed-upon basis.

4.11 *Guiding Pupils into Interest Groups*

Pupil groupings in elective subjects, clubs, and other activities may well use interests as one of the bases for grouping. Such courses as the industrial arts, drama, and certain commercial subjects may serve more effectively the needs of individual students by being grouped on the basis of interest rather than on the basis of ability or aptitude. Interest motivates activity and provides a common thread which makes for effective group dynamics. In determining the membership of clubs and other extraclass activities, the counselor will probably find that the use of sociometric tests, which discover interpersonal relationships among pupils, has real worth when used in collaboration with interests. The use of interests as a single criterion overlooks the social structure of the anticipated group.

4.12 *Individualized Instruction as Related to the Grouping of Children*

There are several variations on the use of individualized materials or differentiated programs for use with children in a heterogenous grouping. A good example of this type of organization is found in what is called the Winnetka Plan.[27] Under this arrangement, children work on individualized materials in the skill subjects for part of the day. Each child works at his own rate of speed on materials designed for his level of achievement and growth. There are no failures, as the child moves from unit to unit after passing mastery tests on each unit. Half of the school day is spent on activities in which the entire group participates. These activities include physical education, art, music, social studies, industrial arts, and dramatics. Special effort is made to guide children into these activities according to social maturity and needs.

Another variation of this technique designed for use more specifically on the secondary level, is the Dalton Plan.[28] This plan is set up on a contract basis; each student accepts a contract for a month's

[27] Ross, *op. cit.*, p. 430.
[28] *Ibid.*, p. 432.

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work. The student works at his own rate and does not progress to the next unit until the preceding contract has been completed.

The Morrison Plan [29] also differentiates between the amount and the quality of work undertaken by each individual pupil. Tests are prominent, as pretests are given before work is begun to determine starting point. When the unit is completed, tests are administered again to determine degree of mastery. There are also numerous other versions of differentiated plans.

How do these individualized approaches fit into the modern concept of education? The objective of individualizing instruction is certainly worthy, but the question arises as to whether this can be better accomplished if students are considered as members of a group or as individuals. All of these plans have been criticized because they are subject-matter-centered and not child-centered. Objections are raised to the fact that the skills and knowledges acquired are learned in isolation as separate entities, and therefore there is less chance that the child will be able to apply them in real-life situations. It is obvious that these approaches to the learning situation do not coincide with present educational thought, which emphasizes an integrated type of experience in which all schoolroom activities are centered around situations vital to the growing child. Schools which employ individualization in this manner should be alert to the task of implementing their programs whenever possible to contribute to a more integrated type of learning experience for children. It cannot be questioned, however, that the various plans to individualize instruction, with all of their shortcomings, are more effective than the traditional school which believed in establishing one standard and expecting all children to conform regardless of their individual abilities and needs.

It should not be inferred that there is no place in the regular classroom for the use of individualized materials. The resourceful teacher will have at his disposal many different teaching devices to assist him. He may want to give a child extra help in some phase of a skill subject. Individualized materials on which the child works for a time may be exactly what he needs. The child would work on such materials only for the time needed to accomplish what the teacher has in mind and would then revert to group activities. The

[29] *Ibid.*, p. 435.

social setting of the learning situation would not be disturbed by this practice.

4.13 *Departmentalization as Related to the Grouping of Children*

Departmentalization is based on the "subjects-taught-in-isolation" viewpoint in education. Since present-day trends in education emphasize integrated experience, the practice of departmentalization is coming under close scrutiny. Prince found by the survey method that fewer schools were using the departmental or platoon form of organization or instruction in the elementary schools than were four years previously. He found that 68 per cent of the schools surveyed had decreased or discontinued the use of departmental schools. Many were extending the trend through grades 7 to 9.[30]

The secondary schools are breaking down departmental barriers only slightly when they combine courses usually in English and the social sciences to form common-learnings programs. Perhaps more of this will be done in the future.

The newer practice of forming age groups or ungraded groups in the elementary school has given impetus to the discontinuance of the departmental school. Even a graded room presided over by a single teacher would seem to provide more opportunities for an integrated experience for children than a departmental school.

4.14 *Curriculum Trends as Related to the Grouping of Children*

How children are grouped and the quality and quantity of their learning experiences are directly related. Giant strides have been made during the past decade in developing schoolroom experiences which are purposeful and meaningful to growing boys and girls. The central theme in curriculum development today is to have learning experiences child-centered rather than subject-centered. Skills and knowledges are intended to serve, not to be served; they are a means or vehicle through which boys and girls grow and develop. They should never be regarded as an end in themselves.

Traditional education was built around subjects-taught-in-isolation,[31] so to speak. Each subject was separate from all others. Integra-

[30] Thomas C. Prince. "Less Departmentalization in the Elementary Schools." *American School Board Journal.* Vol. III, No. 3 (September, 1945), p. 25.

[31] Henry J. Otto. *Principles of Elementary Education*, p. 225. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc. 1949.

tion, obviously, was completely or almost completely lacking. It was a piecemeal, disjointed type of learning experience for the child. It is this type of school organization from which we have been moving.

Otto traces the progress through several distinct steps. Following subjects-taught-in-isolation, the correlated curriculum came into being. Here each subject retained its separate identity, but there was effort to correlate the subjects. Then came the "core" curriculum, in which one subject was selected as the core around which the work in the other courses was planned. Following the core programs came the "broad-fields" curriculum, in which related subjects were merged into one instructional field. The language arts, for example, were made up of similar subjects such as reading, language, spelling, and writing. It is apparent that the various approaches to curriculum development thus far mentioned are built around some plan involving subjects. In a still more progressive step in curriculum planning in which an attempt was made to break completely with the subject-centered concept, the curricular approach sometimes known as the common-activities-of-living or the common learnings was developed.[32]

It should be borne in mind that the successive steps away from the subject-taught-in-isolation concept have all been motivated by the same underlying philosophy—a search for a type of experience which reflects present-day needs and which is geared to the child's interests, needs, and abilities. The manner in which the problem is approached and the degree to which teachers are able to leave subject matter, per se, behind are the varying factors in the different approaches. All, however, are moves in the right direction and add to the movement's momentum.

Herrick [33] has listed the characteristics of the common-learnings curriculum as follows:

1. Common learnings is a thread of experience that runs through all or a portion of a curriculum and is not exclusively contained in any one area of the curriculum.
2. Most kinds of common learnings prepare for living by em-

[32] *Ibid.*, pp. 225–229.

[33] Theral T. Herrick. "Common Learnings: The What, Why, and How." *The Clearing House.* Vol. 23, No. 9 (May, 1949), pp. 530–531.

phasizing the present and are based upon the needs of the immediate society in which the learner lives.

3. Common learnings are so important that everyone should experience them as often as necessary.

4. Facts are used as a means to an end.

5. Common learnings include understanding, skill, attitudes, and appreciation in the many areas that they touch.

6. Common learnings utilize the problems of personal and social development common to all youth.

7. Common learnings thrive best under conditions that include teacher-pupil planning and problem solving.

8. Common learnings thrive best when a large block of time is provided with one teacher.

9. Common learnings have greater flexibility in utilizing educational opportunities.

The common-learnings approach in providing growth experiences for children in a setting according to the present needs of children and society is growing by leaps and bounds. This approach is particularly well adapted to the ungraded group, but it can be applied, to some degree, to standard grade practice. It has made considerably more progress in the elementary school than in the secondary school. Departmentalization, which isolates each subject, does not lend itself well to common learnings.

Newsom [34] reports from the secondary school viewpoint that

> . . . different schools [are] organizing and developing their programs of general education in different ways. Some use guidance as the core and organize the general education program around the basic idea. Some organize the core on the subject basis along what is known as the broad fields curriculum. Some schools use the interests of students as the core. Other schools use life problems as the core. All of these approaches represent some form of integration.

The most popular combination of subjects in the secondary school field on an integrated basis is English and the social sciences. Subject-matter boundaries are broken down, and the class is assigned a larger block of time, usually two or three hours a day.

[34] N. William Newsom. "Recent Trends in Curriculum Building in the Secondary School." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals.* Vol. 32, No. 157 (November, 1948), p. 122.

Saylor reports integrated programs on the secondary level which extend for one-third to one-half of the school day, during which time a single teacher, with all the members of the staff serving as resource people, assumes responsibility for the entire common-learnings program, except for physical education and possibly certain creative experiences in the arts and out-of-class learning experiences. Another rather frequent approach is to have a single-period, personal-social problems course. Usually this is required for all students.[35]

Evidence is gathering rapidly that many schools are striving to provide a common-learnings background for their pupils. The philosophy underlying the movement is well founded, since it indicates that the schools are an integral part of society and that it is their responsibility to develop a product capable of interacting intelligently in a democratic society. "Democracy cannot be taught by traditional teaching methods; it can only be 'learned about'—its problems studied." [36]

SUGGESTED READINGS

Books and Pamphlets

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[35] Galen Saylor. "Core Programs in American Secondary Schools." *Educational Leadership.* Vol. 6, No. 5 (February, 1949), p. 329.

[36] American Association of School Administrators. *Schools for a New World,* p. 65. Twenty-fifth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1947.

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CHAPTER 5 *Guiding the Progress of Students through School*

5.1 *The Significance of Pupil Progress*

The entrance of children into school and their continuous progress from growth level to growth level are among the salient responsibilities of the school. Traditionally, these were accomplished with mechanical precision according to a set plan. Developments during the past two decades show numerous evidences that schools are attempting to integrate into their programs ways and means of moving children through school experiences in keeping with the best knowledge of how children grow and develop. Research has pointed out that children possess individual growth rates and that they vary a great deal in the various facets of personality development. All of these facts must be taken into consideration when a plan is devised to deal with pupil progress through school. Pupil progress is directly related to grouping techniques, which are discussed in Chapter 4. School progress is also related to entrance into school, the child's adjustment from group to group, and the methods of evaluating pupil growth and the reporting of this growth to parents. Each of these topics will be discussed separately.

THE ENTRANCE OF CHILDREN INTO SCHOOLS

5.2 *Initial Entrance of the Child into School*

The best measures to use in determining readiness of children for entrance into school are chronological age and physical development. This statement applies to all children except those with serious mental or physical handicaps which would make them unable to fit into the regular school program.

Entrance policies are controlled somewhat according to the facilities provided by the schools. They depend on whether schools have nursery schools, prekindergartens or kindergartens, or whether the children enter directly into grade 1 or the primary school—if the school has an ungraded group. It is a sad commentary on public education that only 20 per cent [1] of the five-year-olds attend kindergarten. This means that 80 per cent of the children in the United States enter first grade as six-year-olds without, for the most part, previous nursery school or kindergarten experiences. Ideally, a school should have an integrated primary school, including a nursery-kindergarten unit where children would enter perhaps at the age of three and remain until entrance into the new unit of the unified school or grade 1 if the school were on a graded system.[2] A great deal could be contributed to the growing child during this period.

School superintendents and boards of education are faced with the task of forming and carrying out entrance policies. These policies, for the most part, are quite arbitrary, in that they specify chronological age and, in some instances, mental age, when psychological tests are used in determining entrance at an age earlier than the chronological age listed.

On the basis of chronological age, children are usually admitted to one-year kindergartens at five and to first grade at six. Admitting children on the basis of chronological age ensures, at least, that the child is guided into a fairly homogeneous group so far as social development is concerned. Those in charge of pupil entrance should try to dissuade parents from entering their children earlier than is normal for them. Early entrance may mean that the child is mentally, physically, socially, and emotionally immature. Early entrance to kindergarten and first grade may mean pressure on the child from the beginning to the end of his formal education. When children are admitted on the basis of psychological tests at a chronological age earlier than normal, it should be determined that the child has the emotional, social, and physical maturity necessary for him to profit from the growth experiences of the group.

[1] Henry J. Otto. *Principles of Elementary Education*, p. 55. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc. 1949.

[2] American Association of School Administrators. *The Expanding Role of Education*, p. 43. Twenty-sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1948.

5.3 *A Child-development Approach to Entrance*

Obviously, the schools are in need of a new approach to children's initial entrance into school. They need an approach which divorces itself from the petty bickerings which sometimes develop between parents and school officials over entrance of children. The schools need an approach which is psychologically sound and based upon the growth concept.

A plan which comes near to the above criteria is in operation in the South Plainfield, N.J., public schools. Fries reports that, in this school, children are admitted to the primary school, an ungraded group, at any time during the school year when they reach their fifth birthday.[3] The reasoning behind this policy is that the child can start his education in March just as easily as in September. Each new member is invited by the school group to become one of its members. Each new child starts to school as an individual and not as a member of a mass of children in September. Since the child enters an ungraded group, and since there is wide variation in traits and needs among any group of children, there will be others in the group presenting needs and traits similar to those of the entering child. This idea is educationally and psychologically sound. It eliminates parental ill feelings which sometimes accompany the admission of children. It is child-centered in underlying philosophy. This plan and its variations deserve further experimentation and evaluation.

There is no reason why the South Plainfield Plan could not be used in admitting children to nursery schools, prekindergartens, and first grade, if these are the initial entering schools. It could even be used in a graded school with success, if the teacher had the time and the patience to adapt growth experiences to individual pupils.

THE CONTINUOUS PROGRESS OF CHILDREN

5.4 *Guiding the Continuous Growth of Children*

Not long ago, the term retardation was a common one in educational circles. It meant that a pupil had not met a prescribed, arbitrary standard and was therefore asked to repeat the work. However, viewpoints are changing. The point of view that prevails now in many

[3] H. C. Fries. "A Continuous Progress School." *American School Board Journal.* Vol. 119, No. 1 (July, 1949), p. 52.

modern schools is that if the child is provided with a continuous flow of experiences on his growth level and in keeping with his needs there can be no failure. Traditionally, then, the school actually failed, in that it did not provide adequate experiences needed by the individual pupil. Promotion, in a sense, means progress, so as the student moves from growth experience to growth experience, from day to day, he is progressing and growing. Thus is developed the concept of continuous promotion or, better still, continuous progress.

Educators are rapidly learning more about pupil growth and the techniques of appraising pupil needs and differences. They are realizing more and more the importance of choosing appropriate growth experiences, thus ensuring the greatest possible growth in each individual pupil in accordance with good psychological timing.

The terms promotion and nonpromotion are a counterpart of the psychology which justified the arbitrary practice of grading pupils according to grade standards. We have learned a great deal about human development during the past decade. We are now able to appraise pupil growth better than formerly and are thinking in terms of a type of school organization which will facilitiate pupil growth to the maximum. Our knowledge about growth rates of individual children has helped us immeasurably in our thinking and planning. We know that expecting all children grouped in a given grade to grow at an even rate and reach the end of the school year with the same achievement levels, attitudes, and emotional and social levels is expecting the impossible. To expect this attainment would be to ignore the well-known fact that children differ in patterns and rapidity of growth. By attempting to group pupils in rigid grades, the school completely ignores the principle of individual differences.

Having pupils move continuously from growth level to growth level does not mean the same thing as automatic promotions. "Many people speak as if continuous progress were synonymous with automatic promotion. This is not the case. . . . The essence of such a plan is found in the day-by-day guidance of the individual in all of his educational experiences to the end that he may make that progress which is for him consecutive, sequential, and integrated with his all-round growth as a person." [4]

[4] Mary A. Adams. "Continuous Growth." *Baltimore Bulletin of Education.* Vol. 25, Nos. 7–8 (April–May–June, 1948), pp. 258–259.

Continuous progress or continuous pupil growth means that each pupil starts his educational journey at a point according to his pattern of abilities and needs and to his growth rate. From this point he moves forward without interruption to the most advanced point possible in the time provided. Obviously, some will move faster and farther than others. There are no failures because the child keeps progressing and growing. There must be no arbitrary standards or hurdles for him. Motivating each child to progress at his own individual rate and on materials which he can readily understand and not at rates or on levels attained by other members of the group serves to eliminate many pressures and frustrations. The child simply grows without interruptions, he does not find it necessary to repeat or "relive" any segment of his school experiences. "Gaps in learning are eliminated and repetition becomes unnecessary. Education becomes a series of progressive steps toward maturity." [5]

Some significant researches have appeared to testify to the effectiveness of learning experiences provided on a continuous basis and geared to the needs of individual pupils. Morrissy and Robinson [6] report on an experiment in continuous pupil progress carried on in the Baltimore public schools. The continuous-growth policy was established city-wide in Baltimore for the first grade in 1947. At the end of the second grade, after two years of the new plan, 7,428 pupils were given the Metropolitan Primary Reading Tests, Revised Form A. The results show that 90 per cent of the children were reading at grade level or above. Fifty per cent of all the pupils were reading above grade level. Only 10 per cent were reading below grade level. The authors state that "obviously there is no dilution of educational standards in this procedure, nor is there encouragement to indifferent children to take advantage of the situation." [7] The study made by Jones further substantiates these findings. She found that when children were taught on their individual levels regardless of grade placement they made a greater amount of growth than comparable children taught, as a group, the curriculum pre-

[5] Daisy M. Jones. "An Experiment in Adaptation to Individual Differences." *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 39, No. 5 (May, 1948), p. 271.

[6] Elizabeth Morrissy and J. B. Robinson. "Reporting Pupil Progress in Elementary Schools." *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*. Vol. 26, No. 4 (June, 1949), p. 9.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

scribed for their grade.[8] Sandin found that slow-progress children were less favorably adjusted socially in their class groups than were those who were promoted regularly.[9] Experimental evidence substantiates the fact that children grow better academically and are better adjusted socially if some type of continuous-growth policy is followed.

5.5 *Continuous-growth Practice in Graded and Ungraded Groups*

The continuous-growth concept, when applied to growing children, may be used in both graded and ungraded or unified groups—not, however, with equal ease. Grade-standard practice means that the pupil must accept a new adjustment once or twice a year, depending upon whether the school operates on an annual or a semi-annual basis so far as promotions or adjustments are concerned. This is alleviated somewhat if some variation of the continuing-teacher idea is used. Even if the teacher of a grade is an excellent teacher and teaches each child on his particular level, the fact that the pupil is frequently adjusted to another group breaks the continuity of his growth experiences somewhat. The ungraded approach to the grouping of pupils makes it possible for the same teacher to guide the continuous growth of an individual child over a period of at least two or three years. This favors the continuous-growth concept immeasurably. Cook [10] states that "in both the elementary and high school the practice of having a teacher teach the same group of pupils from three to six years should be encouraged." Moreover, the new emphasis on a common-learnings type of curriculum thrives where an integrated or unified type of school organization is present, either in the elementary or in the secondary school field.

5.6 *The Ungraded Group or Class for School Entrants*

It is of particular importance that teachers be given ample opportunity to study children and to determine their growth rates and

[8] Jones, *op. cit.*, p. 270.

[9] Adolph A. Sandin. *Social and Emotional Adjustments of Regularly Promoted and Non-promoted Pupils.* Child Development Monograph 32. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University. 1944.

[10] Walter W. Cook. "Individual Differences and Curriculum Practice." *The Journal of Educational Psychology.* Vol. 39, No. 3 (March, 1948), p. 146.

needs upon their initial entrance into school. If the school is operating an ungraded preprimary or primary unit, then the problem is automatically provided for. If, however, the school is organized on a graded basis, it would be advantageous to organize the initial entrance class on an unclassified basis.

5.7 *Guiding Children from Growth Level to Growth Level*

Any school which operates on grade-standard practice moves or "promotes" children from grade to grade once or twice each year. Guidance is lacking, as the process resolves itself more or less into a matter of mechanics. Schools operating on a continuous-growth program approach the problem of adjusting children from growth level to growth level in quite a different manner. The best interests of the individual child are always the controlling factors in making the adjustments.

Any adjustment of the individual pupil from group to group or from growth level to growth level should be made any time during the year when the need is apparent. Mass promotion at the end of the school year is not good. It is too mechanical. Fries [11] states that in the South Plainfield, N.J., schools

> . . . mass promotion at the end of the school year has given way entirely to the idea of immediate adjustment for individual pupils when the needs are known and can be met better by a change in group placement. All changes are made during the school year, never at the end of a year. Children return in September to the same June group. This process removes the stigma which is so commonly associated with the traditional promotion and failure practices. Individuals move separately or in groups of two or three at the most.

It is obvious from this statement that the South Plainfield schools are operating on the continuous-growth philosophy.

The staff of the Wooldridge School, University of Texas,[12] has done considerable experimentation with the problem of pupil movement from one group to another. It suggests the following ways of effecting the change:

[11] Fries, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

[12] Staff of Wooldridge School. *Grouping, Marking and Reporting to Parents*, p. 32. Austin, Tex.: Wooldridge School, University of Texas. 1950.

1. A small delegation from the group with which a child is to live and work might invite him to come into their group because of some special contribution he can make—tell them of the school he visited in another town, help build a lunch stand, be in their rhythm group, sit at a table with a child who has no tablemate, help keep a record of their bank money, etc.

2. The group with which he is to work might write a letter to the child who is to be moved, telling him what is being done in the room and inviting him to join the group.

3. Send the child who is to be moved to another group to visit with the new group for a short period each day until he finds his place there.

4. Plan an excursion and invite the child to be moved from another room to go.

The above suggestions merely indicate the approach which can be followed in adjusting and guiding pupils from group to group. The alert teacher will find countless other approaches. "The reason must be real and honest to the child. Children are quick to detect the artificial. . . . Certainly the child should not lose standing with the group he leaves, neither should he enter a group feeling he is superior to the group he is leaving, nor should he enter a group feeling unwanted." [13]

5.8 *The Continuing-teacher Plan*

Those schools which believe in the philosophy underlying continuous pupil growth are incorporating into their systems ways and means of facilitating continuous pupil growth. A plan which has much merit and which is gaining momentum is the continuing-teacher plan. It is simply the technique of continuing the same teacher for as large a segment of the child's school life as possible. As the individual pupil continues to grow and is guided from growth level to growth level, a teacher is assigned to guide the growth experiences of the child and continues to move with the child as the child progresses. Lindquist [14] states: "In some schools the pupils have the same teacher from kindergarten through the sixth year; in others, one

[13] *Ibid.*

[14] E. F. Lindquist. *Educational Measurement*, p. 30. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1951.

teacher through the primary years and another through the intermediate years." The fact cannot be disregarded that it takes time for a teacher to study a child, determine his maturation pattern, and work out a plan of experiences in keeping with his needs. If this were to be repeated once or twice a year while the child lived his educational life, his continuous progress would be interrupted seriously. Lindquist concludes:

> The continuing-teacher plan eliminates the concept of a grade teacher and places emphasis on knowing the pupil and his needs, knowing parents, and thinking in terms of child development. The teacher is enabled to start each year with a thorough knowledge of his pupils and can plan the work of the year in terms of specific needs. The process of promotion is eliminated.[15]

It is not impossible to carry the continuing-teacher concept into the secondary school. The establishment of core programs by means of integrating courses—commonly English and the social sciences—provides a longer period of time in which the teacher may learn about his pupils, their differences and needs. The time factor in learning about pupils can be further accentuated by having the integrated course taught by a home-room teacher. Through the work of the teacher in the extended period for the core course and with the time normally spent in home-room guidance and activities, the teacher is in a much better position to adjust experiences to individual pupils and their needs. Knowing the pupil is exceedingly important in facilitating continuous growth.

Departmentalization, semiannual promotions, and even annual promotions are deterrents to continuous pupil growth. School systems must study their programs in the light of pupil needs. If they decide to keep the practices listed above, they should implement them in every way possible to foster the continuous-growth philosophy which is fast becoming an integral part of modern educational thought and practice.

5.9 *Individualized Materials and the Continuous Growth of Children*

It cannot be denied that the use of individualized materials ensures continuous progress in a particular skill or subject. The fact that no

[15] *Ibid.*

one fails is significant. The extensive use of individualized materials on the elementary level, as in the Winnetka Plan, and on the secondary school level, as in the Dalton Plan, is often criticized on the ground that all-round growth of the child suffers because of too much working alone on individual materials. Perhaps this criticism can be answered somewhat when only part of the child's learning experiences in a given subject or skill are provided through individualized materials. If individualized materials are used wisely so that a social imbalance is not created, some of the criticism can be eliminated. The versatile teacher will use individual materials wisely in providing learning experiences in keeping with the child's needs.

5.10 *Transition Classes as Related to Continuous Progress*

It is axiomatic that some children will move more slowly than others; therefore each child should be allowed to proceed at his own rate. The time element is easily adjusted when schools are operating relatively broad, integrated programs. If the unit of the school normally covers three years of the child's school life, some children may need three and one-half or possibly four years to cover it. If, however, the school is operating on a graded basis, additional sections of time allowing for maturity may be provided. Transition classes are usually placed between kindergarten and first grade for one semester. For those with pronounced needs, another semester is sometimes inserted between the second and third grades.

The transition class between the kindergarten and first grade is of particular importance. There are several types of pupils who may profit immeasurably from time for additional maturity. Those whose learning rates are slower than normal may profit from this class. It may help those who come to school with inadequate experience and family background or with immature physical, social, and emotional development. Children entering late because of sickness, enforced absence from school, or without kindergarten experience might well profit from additional time for maturity. Even those children found not well adapted to kindergarten or first grade might be guided into this group for further study and readjustment. Children who do not speak English well because of foreign background in the home and who are chronologically and legally entitled to enter school may well fit into the transition class.

There should be no arbitrary rules as to length of time a child remains in the transition class. Pupils should be shifted from one class to another whenever the need arises, and they should certainly be transferred to the first grade, since that move is forward, just as soon as they can fit into the first grade successfully. Under no consideration should the child stay longer than one term without a careful evaluation of his needs and adjustments by those in charge.

It should be kept in mind that the transition-class idea has value only in a graded system and that its purpose is to provide additional time for maturation and development. It likewise provides additional time for study of the individual child, which is exceedingly valuable in any continuous-progress plan. Extreme caution must be practiced in labeling the group so that no stigma is attached to it by either pupils or parents. Such a class might well be called Miss Brown's room or Miss Smith's room, which is an excellent way of identifying any group of pupils whether graded or ungraded. It must be remembered that the transition class should never be intended for slow learners but rather for pupils who, for various reasons, can profit more from this type of growth experience than from going directly from kindergarten to first grade.

5.11 *Transition of Pupils from the Elementary School to the Secondary School*

If the individual pupil moves through the elementary school at a normal pace, he should complete this portion of his education in seven years, if the school provides a kindergarten. If the child enters grade 1 at six years of age and progresses normally, he will be ready for adjustment to the junior high school at twelve. Since continuous progress means that pupils move through their educational experiences at a rate suited to them individually, occasionally a pupil will need to stay in the elementary school longer because of general immaturity, not solely on the basis of lack of achievement. "In only rare exceptions will a child over twelve years of age be retained in the elementary school." [16] All schools that practice continuous-progress policies seem to be in agreement on the timetable for adjustment into the secondary school as a result of slowness in matura-

[16] *Grouping, Marking and Reporting to Parents*, p. 33.

tion. A child only one year delayed over a six- or seven-year period should not have his development problems complicated by this amount of slowness. He will still be growing and living in the same social setting, relatively, as if he were to complete the elementary phase of his education in one year less.

The progress of individual pupils from junior high school to senior high school must be guided by the educational viewpoint stated above. Obviously, all in the secondary school should be guided into learning experiences of a common-learnings nature. All need experience in working with problems directly related to immediate environmental and social factors. Guidance must be at work in helping students make intelligent choices of learning experiences, other than common learnings, which reflect their particular needs and interests.

5.12 *Transition of Pupils from the Secondary School into College*

College entrance must be based upon the work the student does in senior high school. Guidance for entrance into college is as important as guidance for entrance into various occupations. The responsibility of guidance workers in the secondary school is to enroll the student in courses preparatory to entrance into college along specialized lines and also to provide well-rounded experiences which will facilitate general adjustment to college. Breadth, as well as depth, should be the guiding criterion in advising students. For example, students anticipating college entrance into some branch of engineering should be given basic courses in science and mathematics in high school. Obviously, the type of mathematics pursued by this group will be different in content and method from that recommended for groups entering other types of curricula. In general, students should take the courses on the secondary level that will best prepare them for the type of curriculum which they intend to follow on the collegiate level.

Even though a student does not specifically prepare for college entrance, he should not be denied the privilege of entering if he later chooses to. It is understood, however, that he may have to take in college certain basic courses as prescribed by the college before graduation. It is always better to anticipate college entrance through the guidance function and prepare the student correctly for entrance.

5.13 *Continuous Pupil Progress on the Secondary School Level*

The continuous progress of pupils from the elementary school to the secondary school will be materially facilitated if the two levels operate under the philosophy that there must be continuous grouping and regrouping of students into classes or areas of experience designed to meet their needs. The secondary school must accept the viewpoint that it is the responsibility of this level of education to provide learning experiences designed to meet the needs of individual students. Arbitrary standards which are prescribed for a group and which all students are expected to hurdle without regard for ability, interest, and need patterns do not fit into modern educational practice.

There is no reason why a student should fail a course into which he has been guided if the teacher provides experiences on an individual basis in keeping with his needs. Students may fail on the secondary school level only when the subject is taught for the sake of the subject, not of individual growth possibilities. Obviously, there must be courses designed for students with different needs. College-preparatory courses, for example, are designed for students who intend to go to college. The methods of presentation and the requirements of proficiency will be somewhat different in emphasis from those in similar courses taught to meet different student needs.

Essentially, however, if the secondary schools organize and present their learning experiences from a student-centered viewpoint rather than a subject-centered viewpoint, there should be continuous progress on the part of each individual pupil. Therefore, there can be no failure. Departmentalization in itself does not lend itself to student-centered teaching because it sets up subjects as isolated experiences and because there is the danger that a person trained in a special field may focus attention on the subject rather than upon the student. Implementation is needed at all times to assure continuous pupil growth with this type of organization.

5.14 *Continuous Pupil Records Are Basic to Continuous Pupil Growth*

Since the concept of continuous pupil growth must be based on a knowledge by the teacher of continuous pupil needs, continuing

records must be kept and made ready for use at all times. They must be cumulative. The pupil's cumulative record should have its inception when the child enters school and should follow him from adjustment to adjustment until he completes his formal education. The record should be a storehouse of information about the pupil. Test scores of all kinds, health records, ratings and observations made by teachers, past performance records, and any other information which can be of help in making provisions and adjustments toward his growth should be included. The continuous-growth plan will fail without a good, cumulative record, because continuing-growth practice means that the teacher is continuously providing growth experiences according to the individual pupil's needs, and his needs are reflected in his record. These records should be located in the elementary room where the pupil is placed. On the secondary school level, the home-room teacher or the guidance counselor, depending upon the school's organization, should have them.

EVALUATION AND REPORTS TO PARENTS

5.15 *Evaluation of Pupil Growth and Reports to Parents*

Pupil evaluation should always be in terms of the goals set up for the individual child. If the teacher establishes a fixed standard for the grade and evaluates the progress of each child against the single standard, the result is grade-standard practice. The child is usually given a numerical or letter grade as compared to others in the group in relation to the standard. Obviously such a practice is subject-centered, and the concept of expecting all children within a given group to achieve similarly is archaic.

If, however, the teacher sets a standard or goal for each child in keeping with his individual traits and capacities and judges his progress on how well he has grown in relation to these capacities, then the process is child-centered and in keeping with sound principles of child development. In this realm of thinking, the child actually achieves according to his ability rather than compete against other children or against a fixed grade standard for the group. Evaluating the growth of children in this manner obviously contributes to good mental health, as many children will be freed from the pressures of attempting to attain goals of which they may be wholly incapable.

The traditional school, being subject-centered, attempted to measure pupil progress wholly in relationship to subjects. The modern school is interested in the total growth, not only in achievement in skill and content subjects but also in the areas of physical development, healthy attitudes toward school and life, and social and emotional development. How best to record the evaluations of the teacher and transmit them to parents in an understanding manner has been the object of considerable research during the past decade. The greatest amount of progress in making child-centered reports to parents has come in the elementary school. This is true because it is in this unit of the school that the child-development approach to teaching and guiding children has become an integral part of educational practice. The secondary school, because of departmentalization and emphasis upon the subject rather than upon the pupil, has been somewhat slower to respond.

5.16 *Progress Reporting in the Elementary School*

Many schools report progress to parents in terms of whether the pupil's progress has been satisfactory or unsatisfactory as measured against the child's capacities and limitations. Obviously, such an evaluation is not enough. Explanations should accompany the report so that the parent will be guided and informed as to why the child was judged unsatisfactory in a certain area of development. Ojemann and McCandless [17] have found that the majority of the "paragraphs written by teachers" emphasize describing behavior and not the factors producing it. If parents know why their children are not making satisfactory progress, they are in a much better position to help their children in the all-important problem of maintaining satisfactory progress. Most parents are interested in helping with the guidance of their children; for the teacher to elicit their help through meaningful reports and personal conferences is indicative of good guidance and teaching. Ojemann and McCandless,[18] in their study, found the following advantages of meaningful reports to parents:

[17] Ralph H. Ojemann and Ruth A. McCandless. "Suggestions for a Fundamental Revision of Report Cards." *Educational Administration and Supervision*. Vol. 32, No. 2 (February, 1946), p. 112.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 115.

1. Stimulated an attitude of confidence in some parents toward the teacher and the school
2. Seemed to develop a friendly link between the parent and the teacher
3. Seemed more personal and individualistic to some parents
4. Gave parent and teacher a better background for a more intelligent interview
5. Stimulated some parents to give new thought to their children's growth and pointed out some characteristics that parents had not fully realized

5.17 *Reporting Pupil Progress through Conferences with Parents*

Probably one of the most effective ways of informing parents of the total growth of their children is through the personal conference. Having the parent and teacher meet face to face to talk about a problem of common interest to both is good procedure. Each party has information which will help the other in the guidance of the child. The parent will be able to give much valuable information about the child in relation to the home. The teacher can report on the adjustment of the child in school. The staff of the Wooldridge School[19] has set up a number of criteria for parent-teacher conferences as follows:

1. The teacher is familiar with all available information regarding the parent and child. Some of this can be obtained from the cumulative records.
2. The time for the conference is one that is convenient for both parent and teacher, if possible. The ideal time is during school hours.
3. The place for the conference is comfortable and private. The teacher is not seated behind a desk.
4. The teacher has notes prepared and proceeds in a businesslike way.
5. The parent comes prepared for the conference and gives the necessary information.
6. The teacher is relaxed and calm, so that the parent gets the impression that the conference is a source of real pleasure and help to the teacher. Such an emotional climate is conducive to the coopera-

[19] *Grouping, Marking and Reporting to Parents*, pp. 41–42.

tive spirit necessary for the guidance of child growth and development.

7. The teacher realizes that the conference period is an opportunity to enlist the parents' cooperation in furthering the aims of the school.

8. The teacher collects vital information from the parent that will be helpful in guiding the child in his daily living at school and at home.

9. There is a better feeling of friendliness, cooperation, and understanding developed if the teacher encourages the parent to do most of the talking, and the teacher becomes a good listener. He should ask questions rather than give answers—a worker with the parent rather than a specialist who knows all the answers.

The type of home from which a child comes may give the teacher valuable insights into the pupil's needs which are evident as the child progresses through school. The suggestion has been made by the Wooldridge School group that the first conference with the parent, if the child is in grade 1, may be effectively held in the home.[20] This gives the teacher a chance to get acquainted with the parent in the home setting.

Children themselves are in a position to write and make reports to their parents as to their progress in school. As a part of the language work in grades 3 to 6 of the Wooldridge School, the children write two letters each school year to their parents telling of their progress. Moreover, children evaluate their social habits and attitudes by checking items on a check list. The checking by pupils will be more effective if it is preceded by a group discussion on what the items mean.[21] This illustrates one more valuable means of informing parents of the total growth of their children on an individual basis.

5.18 *Reporting Pupil Progress in the Secondary School*

Because of the traditions and pressures exerted by institutions of higher education, the secondary schools will continue, for some time, to evaluate the progress of students in terms of specific numerical or letter marks. However, if the secondary schools are interested in

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 40.
[21] *Ibid.*, pp. 39–40.

evaluating pupil growth in terms of the individual rather than in terms of fixed standards, perhaps the terms satisfactory and unsatisfactory might be used to denote pupil progress in relation to each student's pattern of potentialities.

Conferences between parents and teachers, home-room teachers, and counselors afford valuable opportunities for reporting pupil progress to parents. Meetings of this sort should be encouraged in secondary schools whenever possible. The exchange of information between parents and secondary school personnel closely associated with the guidance of the students can be of inestimable value in intelligent guidance.

Teachers' written reports to parents can be made with profit. In the Mamaroneck Junior School, Mamaroneck, N.Y., each teacher of a particular subject writes a personal note concerning the pupil's progress and growth in that subject. These notes are sent to the home-room teacher who clips them together, places them in a suitable folder, and sends them home to the parent. In a space provided on the folder, the parent signs his name. Space is also provided for any remarks which the parent may care to add. These notes on reports are returned to the school and become a part of the pupil's guidance record.

There is much that the secondary school can do in the development of a pupil-centered approach in reporting pupil progress to parents. The secondary school might well profit from the many ideas which have been developed on the elementary school level. The basic ideas shown in many of the techniques used in the elementary school might well, with modification, be adapted for use on the secondary school level.

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CHAPTER 6 *Meeting the Health Needs of Students*

6.1 *The Need for Health Programs*

"The school health program, to an increasing degree, must concern itself with the total physical, mental and social fitness of its pupils." [1] This is a challenge which the modern school will want to accept. An educational program is not complete unless it is accepted. To ignore the guidance of the various aspects of health is essentially to overlook a significant aspect of the total growth of the individual pupil. It would be shortsighted to maintain a health service only for the purpose of providing treatment for those who develop physical or mental illnesses. It is true that this will be one of the main functions of the service, but it is far better to take steps to prevent illnesses, physical or mental, thus eliminating the need for remedial work. This area of the health program should receive major consideration in planning and putting into action a complete health program.

6.2 *Health Guidance as Related to the Total School Program*

Health guidance for each pupil should be made an integral part of the total program of education. Health needs vary from pupil to pupil, which means that health programs must not only provide for the over-all health needs of all children but also be so organized and administered that they will care for the special needs which individual children present. A healthy body and a healthy mind are important and integral parts of the well-rounded personality.

An adequate school health program covers four important areas:

[1] American Association of School Administrators. *The Expanding Role of Education*, p. 126. Twenty-sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1949.

(1) the creation and maintenance of a healthful and sanitary school environment which fosters the physical and mental health of the individual, (2) an adequate school health-instruction program, (3) adequate health services, and (4) the provision of a recreational and physical-education program which has as its purpose the building of strong bodies and healthy minds.

No one aspect of the school health program should be regarded as an entity in itself, but the various aspects must be made an integral part of the total school program. For example, the health services must work with the physical-education program in recommending corrective and remedial exercises for pupils who need them. The teacher of science must take advantage of opportunities to integrate health instruction wherever possible in classroom work. Those who plan the curricular experiences, determine grouping policies, establish individual and group standards, and plan and develop guidance programs must all be concerned with the physical- and mental-hygiene implications of their work. Many other relationships of this sort might also be cited. The concept of the need for good health and the acquisition of needed knowledges, skills, techniques, and attitudes to achieve it should be one of the important goals of education.

PHYSICAL-HEALTH PROGRAMS

6.3 *The Importance of a Healthful School Environment*

We cannot expect school children to develop good health habits and attitudes if the physical plant is poorly planned, poorly maintained, and unsanitary. The building should be planned to provide adequately for classrooms, lunchrooms, toilet facilities, health services, gymnasiums, auditoriums, rest rooms, and whatever other special services are needed by children. Adequate outside recreational and playground facilities should play an important role in planning.

Adequate provision should be made for natural and artificial lighting, heating, humidity, and ventilation. Special facilities may be provided for a special group, such as children in a sight-saving class. The building, and each part of it, should reveal aesthetic values. Unattractive environmental factors may contribute to the development of unwholesome attitudes on the part of teacher and pupils. The teacher should do what he can to make his room attractive. He should see

that cleanliness is practiced in his room at all times and that good housekeeping habits are followed by himself and his pupils.

All seating equipment should be adjustable so that the height of desks and seats may be fitted to individual pupils. Children with certain physical handicaps requiring special seats and equipment should have them.

An efficient custodian who keeps his building neat and sanitary is valuable to an effective health program. An unsanitary building can contribute greatly to the spread of disease and infections among children. Toilets, lunchrooms, swimming pools, and gymnasiums need special care. The work of the custodian will be more meaningful to him and obviously more beneficial to the children and the school if he is shown the importance of his work in facilitating the health program of the school. A well-kept school building and grounds also serve well as an example to school children.

To ensure that the school environment contributes to the physical and mental health of children, a systematic survey may be made. The following form is recommended in making such a survey:

SURVEY OF SCHOOL HEALTH ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS *

Environmental Factors	*Desirable Conditions*
A. *School site*	
1. Location and surroundings	Accessibility, attractive surroundings, no dumps or undermining influences
2. Landscaping	Attractive as any home
B. *Buildings*	
1. Type of structure, number of floors	Elementary schools one floor if possible, elevator for others to provide for physically handicapped
2. State of repair	All necessary repairs made for economy, safety, and attractiveness
3. Provision for fire protection	Fireproof buildings if possible. Exits, fire escapes, alarm systems, extinguishers
4. Heating	Modern heating with proper humidity—thermometer control
5. Ventilation	If possible, no-draft windows, circulating air (washed)
6. Acoustical treatment	Of ceiling and walls

* American Association of School Administrators. *The Expanding Role of Education*, pp. 128–129. Twenty-sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1949.

C. Classroms

1. Number and size of seats	Sufficient number, and size to fit child (adequate space between seats as an aid in control of contagion
2. Temperature	68 to 70 degrees Fahrenheit—thermometer control
3. Humidity	Controlled through heating and ventilating system
4. Special rooms	Health service, teacher rest rooms, shops, etc.
5. Illumination	Adequate brightness and brightness ratio; double-switch control to permit illumination for desks removed from windows when daylight illuminates only the outside rows
a. Window shades	Upper and lower shade diffusing light
b. Wall color	Dull finish and light color
6. Desks and seats	Dull finish and adjustable
7. Blackboards	Dull finish, placed in good light; dustless chalk, eraser cleaners
8. Floors	Cleaned and washed, vacuum system if possible, composition flooring if possible

D. Service system

1. Drinking fountains	On each floor, side spout if possible; sufficient number
2. Toilet facilities	Adequate heat, ventilation, light; cleaned daily with a disinfectant; at least one toilet for every twenty children; open-front type; self-flush
3. Hand-washing facilities	On each floor; several basins with liquid soap, paper towels, hot water

E. Operation of school plant

1. Cleaning	Floors cleaned daily, vacuum method preferred; windows washed when needed
2. Dusting	Oil dusting daily
3. Storage of materials	Fireproof compartment
4. Personnel qualifications	Well-trained custodian, engineer, helpers (physical examinations—preemployment, periodic)
5. Lunchrooms	Hot lunches in clean, comfortable, well-ventilated rooms at minimum cost; lunchrooms with sound-deadening wall and ceiling treatment
6. Play facilities	Space and equipment in building other than gym for play in inclement weather

F. Teaching personnel	Complete physical examination on entrance; at least once in three years thereafter
G. Adjustment to children's health needs	
1. Seating 2. Rest periods 3. Special placement	Adjustment to each specific health need, *e.g.*, pupils with vision and hearing problems should be near the front of the room; rest periods should be provided for those with heart trouble or any debilitating disease.

6.4 *The Importance of Health Instruction*

Since health is a factor of all children's learning situations, it is obvious that all school personnel should be teachers of health to some degree and cognizant of its value. The job of teaching health should not be left to the classroom teacher, who may teach a course in health, or to the school nurse or doctor, whose business is health. The sight-saving-class teacher, the science teacher, the shop teacher, the athletic coach, the counselor, and all who come in contact with the individual pupil should capitalize on each opportunity to teach health and give health guidance in some way. Health of pupils, mental and physical, is not something which can be isolated; it is an integral part of the pupil's personality and is with him wherever he goes and whatever he does.

6.5 *Health Instruction in the Elementary School*

It is obvious that the major responsibility for health instruction in the elementary school must be carried by the classroom teacher. The Twentieth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators [2] states that

> . . . knowledge of the development and behavior needs of all children indicates that health teaching in the elementary school will center around the formation and extension of desirable practices, attitudes, and understandings associated with (*a*) nutrition and growth, (*b*) relaxation, rest, and sleep, (*c*) activity, (*d*) fresh air and sunshine, (*e*) elimination, (*f*) cleanliness and care of teeth, body, and clothing, (*g*) importance of and means of securing dental and medical attention, (*h*) control of infection,

[2] American Association of School Administrators. *Health in Schools*, p. 61. Twentieth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1942.

(*i*) care of eyes and ears, (*j*) posture, (*k*) safety, and (*l*) emotional and social adjustment.

The enumeration of areas in which all pupils should have instruction in the elementary school seems to be comprehensive.

Whether or not a separate period should be set aside for health instruction depends upon the curricular organization followed by the individual school. Some schools may want separate periods while others may want to integrate and correlate health instruction with the sciences or social sciences or perhaps even larger units of work. Whatever approach is used, health instruction must be meaningful and adjusted to meet the needs of varying members of the group. Health instruction which is routine and stereotyped has little lasting value. It must be made a dynamic part of daily living in order to be useful and beneficial.

6.6 *Health Instruction in the Secondary School*

Health instruction should continue through the secondary school in an efficient and well-organized manner. All teachers, under the leadership of the principal, should plan ways and means of adequately handling the problem of health instruction. At least three different programs of organization are possible in the secondary school. Separate classes, required of all pupils, may be organized. This arrangement is used in many high schools with good results. Sometimes health instruction is combined with physical education and taught on alternate days. This plan, too, has proved successful in many schools. Still another plan is that of integrating health instruction with the science courses. If the course is well planned, many phases of health education may be readily handled. The teacher of such a course, however, must be prepared to handle not only the science but also the part dealing specifically with health.

Even though all teachers in the secondary school are teachers of health and have many excellent natural situations when some aspect of health may be taught, there is definite need for some specific class which devotes all or part of its time to the teaching of health.

The value of sex education cannot be questioned; it is one phase of health instruction which must be continuously taught from the child's entrance into school until his graduation. It would be unwise

to jeopardize its continuation by labeling it sex education. Instruction in matters of sex should be given without fanfare and in such a way that the school will not receive unfavorable criticisms from various community groups.

The school has a definite responsibility in teaching the harmful effects of alcohol, tobacco, and narcotics upon the health of the individual. This is particularly important with the secondary school pupil. Intemperance in the use of alcoholic beverages and drugs may cause serious maladjustments in social, moral, and personality development.

6.7 *The Provision of Adequate Health Services*

Each school should make provision for as many health services for children as possible. These facilities will vary from the school having a complete health unit staffed with physicians and nurses to the school which may have an occasional visit from a physician or a nurse. Each school should do all within its power to provide health services as adequately as possible.

6.8 *The Characteristics of an Adequate Health Service*

Adequate programs of health service give attention to both the physical- and the mental-health needs of students. The following points have been listed as significant characteristics of an adequate program:

1. Provide entrance and periodic health examinations for all pupils, including methods of identifying emotional factors. Screen for hearing impairment, vision, speech, and dental defects, and other significant physical conditions.
2. Report physical and emotional limitations to teachers, counselors, athletic departments, and the personnel workers concerned.
3. Develop a program of helping students in both physical and mental hygiene.
4. Provide or arrange for necessary immunization and isolation for disease control.
5. Make provision for use of existing services (hospital, infirmary, clinical).
6. Work with administrator and other personnel on the improve-

ment of the school environment and relationships between student and staff.

7. Initiate and maintain a program of accident prevention, safety, and first aid.
8. Cooperate in providing appropriate food services.
9. Study home conditions.
10. Help all staff members to understand and support whatever program is designed to carry out these services.
11. See that all pertinent health information about a child is utilized in the guidance program.
12. See that agencies within the community are used as resources.
13. Work toward the extension of health resources for children.[3]

Only the larger schools will be able to provide all or most of the health services listed. Even the smaller schools, however, will be able to provide some of the services. Each school should do all it can to foster the physical and mental health of each individual child.

6.9 *Health-service Records*

The pupil's health-service record should contain whatever information is gathered pertaining to his health. The record of physical examinations may be on one cumulative card, or each examination may be placed on a separate card. An example of a health-service card may be observed in Figs. 12 and 13. In addition to the records of the examinations, notations of any restrictions placed on the child's program and activities should be made. Information on changes and improvements as a result of treatment should be a part of the record, as well as the name and address of the parent, which might be needed in case of emergency or for consultation. There may be need to file other types of health information about the child. It has been suggested that the following information may well be filed in the pupil's health folder.

1. The preschool examination
2. The school health-service examination (history, findings, advice)

[3] U.S. Office of Education. *Pupil Personnel Services in Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Circular 325, January, 1951, pp. 8–9.

3. Correspondence with family
4. Correspondence with family medical advisers
5. Correspondence with clinics and agencies
6. School health service; notes; reports from teachers, special teachers, nutritionists, and psychologist; the doctor's summary
7. Nurses' reports
8. Notes of counselors and record of use made of these data for guidance purposes
9. Chronological record of examinations, tests, corrections, illnesses and observations from all sources.[4]

6.10 *Judging the Physical Development of School Children*

The practice of developing weight-height-age records has been common for some time in the schools. These records have been used as motivating devices in making school children aware of the value of good health, particularly from a nutritional standpoint. This method is simple and easily understood and has been of great value as a center around which much health instruction has been built. From a growth-failure standpoint, however, the traditional comparison of weight and height to age does not tell the whole story. It is possible for a child to be up to standard weight for his height and age but not be growing up to standard. The weight-height-age tables are inadequate in that they do not take into consideration body build. If weight-height-age tables are used, it might be well to keep in mind that "the usual policy has been to consider as malnourished all children who were 10 per cent below the average for their sex, age, and height; and as obese, those who were 20 per cent above the average."[5] Other signs of growth failure should be watched for and if noted the child should be referred to the health service for a complete physical examination.

There has been developed during the past ten years a new technique for use in the evaluation of the physical development of school children. It is known as the Wetzel Grid and was developed by Dr. Norman C. Wetzel, Cleveland, Ohio. The Grid is worthy of commendation in determining the physical development of school chil-

[4] *Health in Schools*, p. 55.

[5] H. Harrison Clarke. *Application of Measurement* (copyright 1945, 1950 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York), p. 110. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

dren in that each child competes against himself in his growth rather than against a table composed of children whose weights and heights, as compared to age, may be dissimilar to his. Each child's body build determines individually what is expected of him so far as physical growth is concerned.

In fig. 20 shows the Grid, on which has been plotted the growth pattern of a school child. Columns are provided to the left of the Grid for recording age, weight, and height information on the individual pupil. To the right of these data is found the Grid Panel, on which is plotted the child's growth pattern. The Grid Panel is marked by inches denoting height at the top and pounds denoting weight to the left. The point at which these two figures intercept denotes the developmental level of the child. These levels are determined by the steplike diagonal lines which transgress the Grid Panel. Twelve levels represent a year's growth. The dot placed on the Grid derived from height and weight also falls in one of the nine physique channels which extend from A_4, obese, to B_4, poor. These contiguous channels provide for the various types of body build found among children. If the child develops normally according to his particular body build, the developmental pattern will follow reasonably well the same channel in which he was placed initially. Departure from this pattern denotes growth failure and should be the signal to start searching for the cause of the failure.

To the right of the Grid Panel may be found the age schedules of development known as the Auxodomes. This part of the Grid compares weight and height to age, since the developmental lines used in comparing weight and height are extended to the right and become a side of the Auxodome Panel and connect these factors of physical development to chronological age. The curves developed on this part of the Grid compare the growth of the child to norms which have been established by Dr. Wetzel. Deviation of this curve from the normal pattern may also show growth failure in addition to the weight-height growth curves to the left on the Grid Panel.

To the right of the Auxodome Panel is found a basal-metabolism panel.

The Wetzel Grid approaches the problem of evaluating physical development on an individual-pupil basis. Not only does it point out

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to the health officer the need for medical treatment, but it presents to the individual pupil his growth pattern as it relates to his particular physical make-up. The lad who is normally chunky will not be competing hopelessly against the boy who is normally tall and thin or vice versa.[6]

6.11 *Physical-health Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*

The regular classroom teacher, because of his close contact with his pupils, is one of the key persons in the health program. He should be given a list of all pupils in his room who have health defects in order that certain remedial health measures may be put into practice. Specific recommendations prepared by the school physician indicating necessary remedial measures should accompany the list of students.

The alert teacher will observe any signs or signals of illness or physical defect. All children showing such signs should be referred to the proper health officials. Children should be given daily inspections upon arrival at school for any signs of communicable diseases or infections.

The following are symptoms which may tell the teacher that the child is ill:

1. Red eyes
2. Coughing
3. Mouth breathing
4. Flushed face
5. Pallor
6. Fatigue
7. Sleepiness
8. Poor posture
9. Excitability
10. Overactiveness
11. Skin eruption or sores
12. Offensive breath, etc.[7]

[6] The Wetzel Grid may be purchased from the NEA Service, Cleveland, Ohio. Manuals and guides for the use of the Grid and its installation are also available.

[7] Los Angeles County Schools. *Guidance Handbook for Secondary Schools*, pp. 103–104. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau. 1948.

6.12 *Working with the Home on Health Needs of Students*

Needed medical services, for the most part, will be provided by the parent. Upon completion of physical and medical examinations by the school, conferences between the parents and the school's health officials should be held. Parents should be informed of medical or corrective steps which need to be taken to maintain good health for their children. Children in need of medical attention who come from homes in which no interest is taken in their health should be referred to the proper welfare agencies. The health of all future citizens of America should be safeguarded.

6.13 *Health Programs as Related to Physical Education*

Physical-education programs have the following three main functions: (1) They constitute the main body-building aspect of the school, (2) they provide an excellent opportunity for giving health instruction, and (3) they provide an excellent opportunity for facilitating the mental health of students.

A strong, healthy, and well-developed body is considered necessary in the development of a healthy personality. Since pupils present wide physical differences and needs, the physical activities necessary for a well-integrated curriculum should be fitted to individual and group needs.

All children should be given a complete medical examination by a physician before participation in physical activities. The physician should designate those capable of participating on either a full-time or a modified basis and also those who should not participate at all. The medical examination is, in itself, a type of pupil classification. The results of the medical examination should be passed on to teachers and to those who supervise and plan physical activities so that the proper adjustments to individual pupils may be made.

Emotionally disturbed pupils should be quieted before the physical examination. A child returning to school after an illness should be examined by a medical official who should recommend the type of modified physical education which may be needed.

A child seriously underweight should not participate in physical education but should have facilities provided for rest during such periods. Pupils with physical handicaps should have special pro-

grams developed for them. In fact, all pupils with motor disabilities—permanent or temporary—should have special programs. Any pupil who would not profit from participation in physical activity should not be forced into it. A doctor's permit, however, should be required for release from physical-education classes. Heart cases must be dealt with cautiously. They demand examination and re-examination by a competent physician.

6.14 *Identifying Communicable Diseases*

Communicable diseases are an ever present threat to the health of school children. Teachers and health workers must constantly be on the alert for possible signs of disease. Daily inspection has long been a part of the work of the classroom teacher. It can be a casual, unassuming procedure except in times of an epidemic when it must be performed in detail. All teachers should know something about communicable diseases and their symptoms. Many cities, and in some instances states, have prepared data on the control of the various communicable diseases. Teachers should use them if they are available. For teachers working in areas where this is not available, the following information may be of help.

6.15 *Common Cold*

Incubation period: Exact period unknown but probably extends from a few hours to several days.
Early symptoms: Secretion from nose, fever.
Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions.
Period of communicability: First 4 or 5 days.
Immunization: None.
Control measures: Child should be kept home for 2 or 3 days and provided ample rest.

6.16 *Chicken Pox*

Incubation period: 14 to 21 days.
Early symptoms: Eruptions, slight fever.
Modes of infection: Contact with infected persons.
Period of communicability: A day or two before rash appears and up to 6 days after.
Immunization: None.

Control measures: Exclude from school until scabs have disappeared —minimum 10 days. Exposed children should be examined daily for symptoms. Immune should remain in school.

6.17 *Smallpox*

Incubation period: 8 to 16 days.
Early symptoms: Headache, nausea, fever followed by eruptions.
Modes of infection: Contact with infected person.
Period of communicability: From onset to disappearance of scales.
Control measures: Exclude from school and quarantine for a minimum of 14 days or until disappearance of scales. Contacts should be quarantined for a minimum of 14 days unless they were successfully vaccinated within 24 hours after first exposure. All children should be successfully vaccinated against smallpox during their first year of life and be revaccinated every 5 to 7 years thereafter.

6.18 *Measles*

Incubation period: 10 to 16 days.
Early symptoms: Head cold, fever, rash.
Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions and contact with infected person.
Period of communicability: Approximately 9 days—4 before rash and 5 after.
Immunization: No active immunization. Passive immunization may be obtained or cases may be modified by use of gamma globulin.
Control measures: Exclude from school until complete recovery; minimum 9 days. Contacts should be excluded from school for a minimum of 14 days unless there is a daily inspection by a nurse.

6.19 *German Measles*

Incubation period: 14 to 21 days.
Early symptoms: Mild illness, slight fever.
Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions and contact with infected person.
Period of communicability: From 7 to 14 days after catarrhal symptoms.

Immunization: None.

Control measures: Exclude from school for a minimum of 5 days or until complete recovery. Contacts may remain in school if daily inspection is maintained.

6.20 *Whooping Cough*

Incubation period: 7 to 16 days.

Early symptoms: Persistent, spasmodic cough. Slight temperature.

Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions and by contact with infected persons.

Period of communicability: From catarrhal period and until 3 weeks after whooping begins.

Immunization: Immunization during first half-year of life.

Control measures: Exclusion from school for 21 days after whooping begins. Contacts should be excluded for 14 days after last exposure. Hyperimmune serum may be given to modify the severity of the disease.

6.21 *Mumps*

Incubation period: 12 to 26 days.

Early symptoms: Fever and swelling at angle of jaw in front of lower part of ear.

Modes of infection: Secretion from nose and throat and contact with infected persons.

Period of communicability: From 1 to 3 days before onset and until swelling disappears.

Immunization: None. Convalescent serum may be given to modify severity of the disease.

Control measures: Exclude from school for a minimum of 14 days or until patient has completely recovered. Contacts should be examined daily for symptoms.

6.22 *Scarlet Fever*

Incubation period: 2 to 7 days.

Early symptoms: Sore throat, vomiting, fever, and rash.

Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions, discharge from infected ears and glands, contact with infected person.

Period of communicability: Approximately 2 weeks from onset.

Immunization: Can be done but is of questionable value.

Control measures: Exclude from school for a minimum of 14 days after onset. Contacts should be excluded for 7 days after last exposure.

6.23 *Diphtheria*

Incubation period: 2 to 5 days.

Early symptoms: Fever, sore throat, white patch on tonsil or palate.

Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions, contact with infected person, and contaminated water or dairy products.

Period of communicability: Approximately 2 weeks.

Immunization: Toxoid.

Control measures: Exclude from school for a minimum of 14 days or until two negative throat cultures have been taken. Contacts should be excluded from school immediately and readmitted when negative throat cultures have been taken and when 1 week has elapsed since last contact with case.

6.24 *Meningitis*

Incubation period: 2 to 10 days.

Early symptoms: Fever, headache, chills, vomiting, rigidity of neck. Rash frequently.

Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions and contact with infected person or carrier.

Period of communicability: During course of disease and until causative germ is absent.

Immunization: None.

Control measures: Exclude from school for a minimum period of 14 days. Contacts should be excluded for 10 days from last possible contact.

6.25 *Poliomyelitis*

Incubation period: 7 to 14 days.

Early symptoms: Fever, vomiting, headache, stiffness of neck and spine.

Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions and contact with infected person or carrier.

Period of communicability: Just prior to onset and for a period of 10 days to 2 weeks afterward.

Immunization: Active immunization none. Gamma globulin may be used to give temporary protection.

Control measures: Exclude from school for a minimum of 14 days after onset. Contacts should be excluded for 14 days from last contact with infected person.

6.26 *Typhoid Fever*

Incubation period: 3 to 38 days, usually 7 to 14 days.

Early symptoms: Fluctuating fever, headache, lassitude.

Modes of infection: Food, water, milk, and common carrier.

Period of communicability: As long as typhoid bacilli are discharged.

Immunization: Yes. With typhoid vaccine.

Control measures: Exclude from school until no longer a carrier. All susceptible contacts should be immunized.

6.27 *Tuberculosis*

Incubation period: Unknown.

Early symptoms: Fatigue, weakness, afternoon fever, cough.

Modes of infection: Nose and throat secretions, milk and food.

Period of communicability: Whenever sputum contains tubercle baccilli.

Immunization: None.

Control measures: Refer active cases and contacts to proper health authorities.

6.28 *Impetigo*

Incubation period: 3 to 7 days.

Early symptoms: Crusty skin lesion exuding serous or pussy material.

Modes of infection: Broken skin.

Period of communicability: Any time.

Immunization: None.

Control measures: Exclude from school unless treatment with appropriate medication and dressings is provided.

6.29 *Pinkeye*

Incubation period: 3 to 5 days.
Early symptoms: Red and inflamed eyelids.
Modes of infection: From infected place by hands or towels.
Period of communicability: Any time.
Immunization: None.
Control measures: Exclude from school until physician pronounces condition no longer communicable.

6.30 *Trench Mouth*

Incubation period: Variable.
Early symptoms: Sore, red, and swollen gums.
Modes of infection: Usually by direct contact. The use of common drinking cup is also a common source of infection.
Period of communicability: Any time as long as the organisms are active.
Immunization: None.
Control measures: Exclude from school until dentist or physician pronounces condition no longer infectious. Provide sanitary drinking fountains of approved type.

6.31 *Athlete's Foot*

Period of incubation: 3 to 7 days.
Early symptoms: Usually a mild itching between toes, break in the skin between toes.
Modes of infection: Skin, unbroken.
Period of communicability: Any time.
Immunization: None.
Control measures: Exclude unless appropriate medication and dressings are used. Consult physician for prescription.

6.32 *Lice*

Children with head or body lice should be excluded from school until no live lice or nits can be found on thorough inspection by nurse or physician.

6.33 *Emergency Measures for Illnesses and Accidents*

Every school system should take steps to care for children who become ill while at school or who are involved in an accident. It is obvious that definite emergency steps must be taken to provide care until the parents of the child can be reached and they take over. Regardless of the health personnel available in school at the time of an illness or accident the measures taken must be strictly of an emergency nature, unless, of course, it is a matter of life or death to the child, when positive action must be taken.

Some community plan for handling emergencies at school should be worked out with the help of PTA groups, medical groups, and other groups within the community. If a policy has been formulated in advance, the responsibility of the school will be eased somewhat and better cooperation can be expected from the parents. In no instance should a sick child be sent home without an attendant and without the parent being at home to take care of the next stage of treatment, procuring adequate medical attention.

6.34 *School Procedures during Emergencies*

What the school can do and does in times of emergency will depend upon the nature of the health personnel in attendance. Few schools have in attendance full-time physicians or nurses. If they do, the matter of caring for emergencies is greatly facilitated. For the most part, though, school children will not have the protection of a physician or a nurse to care for their needs during illnesses and accidents at school. It follows that the teacher or principal or both must act. They should know what to do and should act without delay to provide whatever measures are needed during the emergency and until a physician arrives, if one is needed. The following recommendations are presented primarily from the standpoint of the classroom teacher and principal.

6.35 *Illnesses*

If at all possible, a small room with a cot should be reserved in the school for children who become ill. A child showing signs of illness should be isolated immediately from the rest of the children. The parents should be notified as soon as possible of the illness and

arrangements made to take the child home. He should not return to school until he has been checked by a physician. The teacher should not assume any responsibility in treating a child who is ill.

6.36 *Injuries and Wounds*

Proper first-aid care of wounds is very important. Minor abrasions and wounds, if properly handled, will heal without infection. All such wounds should be washed thoroughly with clean warm water and soap. The operator should scrub his hands thoroughly before attempting the care of these wounds. A clean washbasin and clean washcloth should be available plus a supply of sterile gauze dressing, 2- or 3-inch roller bandages, and adhesive tape. For small areas, sterile band-aids may be used. After a wound has been washed well with soap and water, the operator should rinse off the soapy water, dry the area, and apply the sterile dressings. Under no circumstances should antiseptics be used in open wounds.

6.37 *Bleedings*

The vast majority of bleeding or hemorrhaging can best be controlled by a pressure dressing. Sterile gauze should be applied to the bleeding area and wrapped tightly until the bleeding stops. It is not advisable to wash out such a wound after the bleeding has been controlled, for fear of starting the hemorrhaging again. Such cases should be taken to a physician immediately. The use of the tourniquet should be used only in the most severe cases of hemorrhages, as permanent damage of tissue can easily result from the application of a tourniquet. If a tourniquet is needed, the Red Cross *First Aid Textbook* [8] should be consulted for information on its use.

6.38 *Burns*

A mild burn which results only in redness of the skin without blister formation can be treated with any of the common burn ointments for relief of pain. If the burn is more severe, it should be covered with a sterile dressing and left for a physician to treat. Blisters or blebs should not be treated. Ointments, soda, or any other form of

[8] American National Red Cross. *First Aid Textbook* (rev. ed.), pp. 56–58. Philadelphia: The Blakiston Company. 1945.

treatment must not be applied to a severe burn, as this often results in infection.

6.39 *Broken Bones*

All fractures or broken bones should be properly splinted before the patient is moved. The Red Cross *First Aid Textbook* gives detailed information on the application of splints and the movement and transportation of persons with broken bones.[9]

6.40 *Fainting and Unconsciousness*

Fainting is not uncommon among school children. Its causes are many, and all children who faint for no apparent reason should be seen by a physician to determine the cause. Fainting from the sight of blood, fright, or any emotional disturbance can easily be handled if the patient is allowed to lie flat until he comes to. Clothing should be loosened around the child's neck and chest so as to relieve any encumbrance to respiration. Throwing cold water on a patient's face is not necessarily harmful, but usually unnecessary. These cases will come out of their faint in a few minutes, usually none the worse for their experience. The danger of fainting, as a rule, is that of falling on hard objects causing tissue damage or head injuries.

6.41 *Poisonings*

The accidental ingestion of poisons usually necessitates vomiting. This can best be produced if the child swallows a half a glass of warm water to which have been added four or five heaping teaspoonfuls of soda. If no soda is available, a soapy solution of water may be used. All students who suffer poisoning should be placed in the hands of the physician immediately.[10]

MENTAL-HEALTH PROGRAMS

6.42 *What Is Mental Health?*

Each school child finds himself living and interacting in several social groups. Each has ambitions, goals, and desires motivated, for

[9] *Ibid.*, pp. 123–161.

[10] The information on communicable diseases, infections, and emergency measures during illnesses and accidents was prepared by Dr. Thomas E. Eyres, Director of Student Health Services, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, S.D.

the most part, by the forces and pressures about him. Many of the objectives held by an individual cannot be realized either because of individual limitations or because of forces from without. The individual who is able to adjust harmoniously to the many pressures about him with the full realization that many objectives cannot be achieved fully is considered mentally healthy. He is without frustration. This means that his state of mind will permit the development of feelings of satisfaction and happiness. Under these conditions, society, in turn, is benefited greatly through his contributions.

6.43 *What Are the Essentials of a Program of Mental Health?*

There are two basic aspects of a mental-health program. In the first place, its purpose is that of preventing frustrations and states of emotional instability by emphasis upon a type of experience which is geared to the individual's needs and capacities and under circumstances which have mental-health characteristics. A program of prevention may be characterized by (1) adjusting learning experiences to levels of ability, (2) developing individual standards of achievement, (3) providing learning experiences which are meaningful and built around student interests and needs, (4) providing personnel free from frustrations and imbalances to guide and teach pupils, and (5) providing a physical environment which is wholesome and inviting. There are numerous other approaches.

The second aspect of the mental-health program provides diagnostic and remedial facilities for those who do develop frustrations and emotional and social imbalances in spite of mental-health measures. It should obviously be the objective of each school to prevent the occurrence of imbalances rather than to permit them to develop and then attempt to provide remedial and therapeutic measures. Millard concludes that for many individuals all the teacher and parent need to do is provide the best facilities for all kinds of growth and development, while those whose environmental stimuli are limited or hindering need a special type of guidance pointed directly toward the development of attitudes and adjustments to those attitudes.[11]

[11] Cecil V. Millard. *Child Growth and Development*, p. 449. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company. 1951.

Many imbalances will occur, however, in spite of mental-health programs, partly because the child is the product of his total environment. Conditions in the home and community may be the underlying causes of the imbalances. It should be remembered, however, that the attitude of the individual toward the things he finds in his environment plays an important role in determining mental health.

6.44 *The Nature of Mental Ill Health*

The individual's inability or failure to cope with the realities of life is a basic factor in the development of imbalances. When an individual seeks goals in his environment realistically in keeping with his personal and social qualities, then imbalances are not likely to occur. A realistic approach to the solution of one's problems indicates a type of purposeful, motivated behavior, while unrealistic approaches do not move toward a purposeful goal. "The better the individual can see possibilities for action, the greater the possibility of solving the problem without developing frustrated behavior. It is through perceiving the clarity of a situation that action toward a goal can take place." [12]

The maladjusted behavior of the frustrated person is registered in a social setting; this type of behavior is judged as misbehavior by the group, since it is not conventional. Behind every problem of maladjusted behavior there is always a motive or motives. People do not do things without a purpose. A motive or stimulus must be present for every bit of behavior, regardless of importance. To understand misbehavior is to understand motives. The patterns of misbehavior are stimulated and formed in exactly the same manner as patterns of socially accepted behavior. We call this brand of behavior misbehavior, because it does not conform to socially accepted standards. Segel points out, however, that misbehavior does not necessarily indicate frustration. He says that "if the behavior contributes to self-enhancement, it is not frustrated behavior even though it is behavior which is not acceptable to society." [13] For this reason, it is the responsibility of parents, teachers, and counselors

[12] David Segel. *Frustration in Adolescent Youth.* Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 1, 1951, p. 25.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 53.

to provide facilities, opportunities, and techniques which will make it possible for youth to solve their problems in a realistic, self-enhancing way, yet in terms of socially acceptable standards.

6.45 *Evidences of Maladjusted Behavior*

The maladjusted person is one who displays behavior which is not normal or which lacks maturity. In many instances, adjustive mechanisms appear which are compensatory to the individual and which are sometimes not socially approved. Temporary lapses from a maturity pattern by an individual should not hastily be construed as evidence of maladjustment. Schwebel and Harris [14] state: "There is no thermometer for measuring emotional status. We all act in a mature manner at times and we act in a very immature manner at other times. The degree to which our actions show maturity determines to which class we belong." Evidence must be present to show that a display of maladjusted behavior is part of a pattern before any attempt is made to determine or classify the person definitely as to type and degree of deviation.

There are several distinct signs which indicate that emotional maladjustment may be present in some state. Schwebel and Harris [15] list the more general signs as follows:

1. Shyness that may become apparent in a number of ways. The adolescent may be overstudious, docile, and withdrawn. He may prefer seclusion and become irritable when parents or teachers attempt to break into his seclusion. He may daydream to the point where he confuses imaginative and realistic thinking.
2. Aggressiveness that indicates a bullying, domineering person who is emotionally uncontrolled and antagonistic and who is always against proposals made by other people.
3. Strong antisocial tendencies manifested in the overt actions of destructiveness, stealing, and lying.
4. Sexual deviations.
5. Somatic symptoms, such as headaches or vomiting, occurring in association with emotional disturbances.

[14] Milton Schwebel and Ella F. Harris. *Health Counseling*, p. 175. New York: Chartwell House, Inc. 1951.

[15] *Ibid.*, pp. 180–181.

Many pupils displaying general signs of emotional immaturity may be helped and their problems resolved through therapies carried on in the schoolroom or through individual counseling. Others may have problems which develop into clinical cases needing expert guidance services.

There are other specific signs of emotional immaturity which represent pronounced cases which may require the services of specialists for rehabilitation. Such illnesses are paranoia, schizophrenia, hysteria, psychopathic personality, and others. The teacher will undoubtedly need help with these students and should refer them either to appropriately trained guidance personnel within the school or to agencies within the community if the school is without them. The treatment of many of these pupils may extend over a considerable period of time. The teacher, as a cooperative and working member of the team, may contribute immeasurably to the rehabilitation of the afflicted person by accepting the child and his problem and exhibiting a warm, loving attitude toward him. The therapeutic values which are possible within the classroom and through the teacher may mean much in the eventual rehabilitation of the ill person.

TECHNIQUES FOR DISCOVERING PUPILS WITH MALADJUSTED BEHAVIOR

6.46 *Observation of the Behavior of Students in Regular Groups*

It cannot be questioned that actual observation of the behavior of pupils as they interact in a normal social setting is one of the best ways of gaining insights into maladjustments of children. All teachers should be able to observe behavior which is unusual or atypical; only those, perhaps, with special training will be able to identify the maladjustment with some degree of clarity. The importance of observation in detecting maladjustments is indicated by Schwebel and Harris [16] as follows: "Just as the teacher may suspect eye strain by observation and may discover defective vision by the Snellen test so, in the field of emotions, he may notice by observation that the student shows evidences of strain in his social and academic adjust-

[16] *Ibid.*, pp. 174–175.

ments." Robert Topp [17] also emphasizes the need for observation in the detection of disorders with the following statement:

> Among children, early disorders of the emotions are most apparent when the individual is engaged in social interaction. Classrooms, study halls, physical education programs, playgrounds, and the usual extra-curricular activities provide teachers with opportunities for detailed observations of children that a psychiatrist might well envy.

Physical disorders among children may occur at any time because of factors affecting health; mental illnesses occur in the same manner. Continuous observation is necessary to note changes in emotional maturity when it first appears. Early detection followed by adequate treatment is exceedingly important.

6.47 *The Use of the Interview*

The individual interview serves well as a means of learning about the emotional disturbances which confront students. Schwebel and Harris [18] state: "Through counseling situations, he [the counselor] may discover evidences of the use of escape mechanisms by the student to the point where they are dominating his life." The confidential person-to-person relationship between student and counselor offers opportunity for the student to talk freely about his problems. The nondirective approach to counseling students having emotional maladjustments is superior to the directive approach, because of the greater opportunity it affords the client to analyze and think through his problem. Counseling situations, if conducted properly, afford a real opportunity not only to discover the presence of personal problems but also to learn about them. The success of a counseling situation of this type depends directly on the skills and competencies of the counselor. See Secs. 2.2 and 2.3 for additional information on counseling.

6.48 *The Use of Tests*

Pencil and paper tests designed to locate pupils having personal problems were discussed and illustrated in Secs. 1.22 and 1.23. It

[17] Robert F. Topp. "The Advantageous Position of the Teacher in the Recognition of Early Symptoms of Personality Abnormalities." *Educational Administration and Supervision.* Vol. 36, No. 1 (January, 1950), p. 36.

[18] Schwebel and Harris, *op. cit.*, p. 175.

should be noted that, even though most of the tests now available are designed for secondary school pupils and adults, there are appearing more tests of this type designed for elementary school children. This is significant, since maladjustments discovered early in the life of the child are easier to alleviate or eliminate. An early attack on personal problems is important.

Certain clinical measuring devices are also available for determining the nature and degree of a maladjustment. Free association and projective techniques illustrate this type of tool. In the free-association type of tool, the subject is read a list of words; he responds to each word individually with the first word that comes to his mind. His responses and the speed with which he responds are compared to a norm and a score is given. The Kent-Rosanoff Free Association Test illustrates this type of test well. The projective technique involves free association, also. Two well-known tests are available in this area: the Rorschach Ink Blot Test and the Murray Thematic Apperception Test. The subject is shown ink blots in the first-named test and pictures in the second. He is requested to describe what he sees. What he sees is compared to a norm and his emotional adjustment is noted. It should be borne in mind, however, that clinically trained persons are needed to administer and interpret these types of tests.[19]

6.49 *The Use of Sociometric Techniques*

Learning about the interpersonal relationships which exist among pupils in a group will point out many who possess social and personal imbalances of varying degrees. From the standpoint of group acceptance certainly those pupils who are widely accepted and those isolated by the members of the group will be discernible to the teacher without any difficulty. Such insights into how pupils feel about one another can sometimes be gained incidentally. For example, the casual comments of students about others in the group will divulge some information of this sort.

Even though information of the type which has been discussed thus far is very important and should be gathered, it is probable

[19] For a recent comprehensive discussion on projective techniques in understanding human behavior, see Harold H. Anderson and Gladys L. Anderson. *Projective Techniques*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1951.

that pupils with personal imbalances of varying degrees will go undetected. Commenting upon the use of various subjective means of gathering data on group relations, Jennings [20] states:

> Even though teachers do locate certain affinities and dislikes accurately without the help of sociometry, they still have no way of knowing who may have wanted to join a group and who was left out, or did not know how to go about it, or was afraid of being rebuffed. Moreover, unsystematic observation is usually accurate only at the extremes—it spots some of the highly chosen children and some who are left out. It tends to be more accurate in the middle range of children who are not conspicuously chosen or left out.

It is significant, too, to note that information on group relations gathered in a casual manner may never show how the individual in the group would "like to associate or how his wishes compare with the feelings of others toward him." [21]

The introduction and use of sociometric techniques cannot help but give the teacher a better knowledge of the social structure of his group. It touches all pupils and reveals how each individual feels toward other members of the group and how members of the group feel toward each. The social status of each child will stand out vividly on the sociogram. "The sociogram lays bare only the structure of interrelations, but not the reasons why the structure is what it is. It does not get at motives or values." [22]

In addition to pointing to those individual pupils who may need help with their personal problems, the results of sociometric tests may also be useful in many other ways. They have inestimable value in serving as one of the bases for the formation of clubs, home rooms, and committees or groups within the classroom. Grouping pupils on the basis of acceptability by others in the group, where a harmonious relationship exists among the various members, makes for group solidarity and effective group relations. The use of the sociometric test for these purposes is discussed more fully in Sec. 2.26.

The sociometric test—its use, administration, interpretation of data

[20] Helen H. Jennings. *Sociometry in Group Relations*, p. 12. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1948.

[21] *Ibid.*

[22] David C. Holtby. "How to Give Your Classes a Social Analysis." *The Clearing House.* Vol. 24, No. 7 (March, 1950), p. 405.

revealed, and their application—is not a simple matter. A teacher should not attempt its use without adequate preparation and study. It is a valuable technique, however, which most teachers can learn to use advantageously.[23]

6.50 *Constructing the Sociogram—an Illustration*

Successive steps to be taken in the construction and use of a sociogram include (1) stating the question, (2) organizing pupil choices, (3) plotting the choices, and (4) interpreting the sociogram.

To illustrate the use of the sociometric technique, the choices were gathered from a group of eight sixth-grade students who had voluntarily returned for continued work during a summer session. Seven of the students had been in the same group for one year or more; the eighth pupil had been a member of the group for only one month.

The steps are as follows:

1. *Stating the question.* Since there was need to create small groups for the purpose of working out group projects during the school term, the question hinged around this need. The students were told that groups of individuals who could work harmoniously together would be formed. They were asked to list first, second, and third choices of the individuals with whom they would most like to work. They were reminded that they could choose either boys or girls. They were assured that their choices would be kept confidential and used solely in forming the groups in which they would work. Student choices, numbered 1, 2, and 3, were recorded on a small card, at the top of which the students had written their names.

See Sec. 2.26 for additional information on stating the question in using the sociometric technique.

2. *Organizing the choices.* The second step in building a sociogram involves the process of organizing the choices in some usable form. Figure 21 depicts these data as they have been shown on a sociometric tabulation form suggested by Jennings.[24] It would probably expedite the use of the material to alphabetize the names of the

[23] For a comprehensive discussion of the sociometric test and its many uses, see Clifford P. Froehlich and John G. Darley. *Studying Students*, pp. 327–341. Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1952. Jennings, *op. cit.*

[24] *Op. cit.*, p. 18.

Chosen → / Chooser ↓	Frank	Susan	James	Jerry	Jane	Marilyn	Peder	Roberta
Frank				1			2	3
Susan				3		2		1
James	1						3	2
Jerry	1		3				2	
Jane		1				3	2	
Marilyn		2			3			1
Peder	2		3	1				
Roberta		1		2		3		
Chosen as								
1st choice	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	2
2nd choice	1	1	0	1	0	1	3	1
3rd choice	0	0	2	1	1	2	1	1
Total	3	3	2	4	1	3	4	4

FIG. 21. Sociometric-tabulation form showing choices of eight students.

students in the columns to the left and across the top of the form. The choices are recorded in the appropriate spaces. For example, Frank chose Jerry as his first choice, consequently the figure 1 is placed in the space which forms the apex of the converging spaces assigned to Frank and Jerry; Peder was Frank's second choice, so 2 was placed in the appropriate space; Frank's third choice was Roberta, so 3 was placed accordingly. The tabulations are easily made from the original cards on which the choices were written by the students.

Summary columns are included at the bottom of the form. The summary reveals that Frank received two first choices and a second choice from his classmates, making a total of three choices for him. The totals reveal that Jerry, Peder, and Roberta were chosen the greatest number of times and Jane the least.

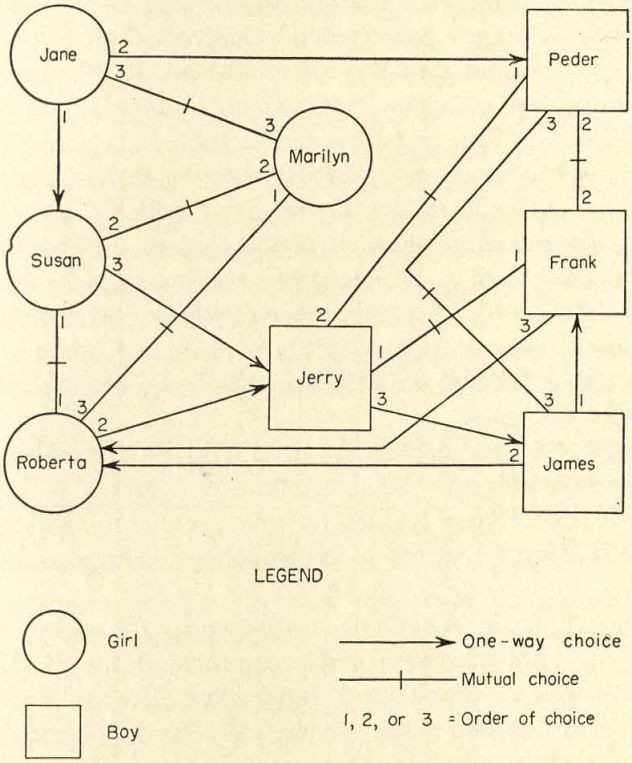

FIG. 22. Sociogram based on the data as shown in Fig. 21.

3. *Constructing the sociogram.* Fig. 22 represents a graphic portrayal of the data shown in Fig. 21. It pictures the interpersonal relationships in the group. It facilitates the study of the sociometric data and helps the teacher to see relationships which otherwise might be overlooked.

Before the names of students are placed on the sociogram, their choices as recorded on the cards at the time of the test should be studied. Those pupils who appear to receive the most choices should be located near the center of the sociogram. Other evidences should

also be considered. In the construction of the sociogram shown in Fig. 22, it was decided to group the boys and girls separately along each side since it appeared from the examination of the cards that two in-groups would be found; one among the girls and one among the boys.

Following placement of the students in appropriate symbols on the sociogram, lines are constructed to indicate those who have been chosen and by whom they have been chosen. If the choice has not been reciprocated, an arrow points from the chooser to the chosen. If the choice has been reciprocated, a solid line connects the two symbols; the line is bisected near its center by a short line. Numbers from one to three placed near the base from which the arrow or solid line emanates indicate the order of the choices. For example, Jerry chose Frank as his first choice; it was reciprocated by Frank's first choice of Jerry. Jerry's second choice of Peder was reciprocated by Peder's first choice of Jerry. Jerry's third choice of James was not reciprocated. Jerry also was the second choice of Roberta and the third choice of Susan.

4. *Interpreting the sociogram.* It should be remembered that a sociogram lays bare the social structure of a group; it does not tell one why it is as shown. It does, however, reveal insights into how a pupil feels about or wants to be associated with members of the group.

Two in-groups are in evidence, as shown by the sociogram. Susan, Marilyn, and Roberta have each reciprocated the choices of the other two. Peder, Frank, and Jerry have, likewise, reciprocated choices between them. Only Peder, Jerry, and Roberta have been chosen by the opposite sex; these provide the communication lines between the two sexes.

Jerry seems to be enjoying a place of real security in the group, since he was chosen by two boys and two girls. Roberta is also well accepted by both sexes, having been chosen by two boys and two girls.

It is interesting to note the security and acceptance Peder is enjoying, especially since he has been a member of the group only one year and entered the group as an immigrant. He was chosen by the three remaining boys in the group and by Jane. It would be interesting to know why Jane chose Peder.

The sociogram reveals two pupils who need help. Jane is almost an isolate, having been saved from that category by a reciprocal third choice from Marilyn. Jane has been a member of the group for only one month and has not been accepted. Aggressive and domineering traits are in evidence which may contribute to the fact that she received one choice out of a possible seven. It is evident that she will need help before security and group acceptance can come to her.

It appears that James also needs help. He was chosen only twice. Why did James choose Roberta instead of Jerry, particularly when Jerry had chosen him? Why did Frank not choose James instead of Roberta? The sociogram poses many questions about James. The answers to these questions may assist materially in helping James find greater security and acceptance in the group.

Many more unanswered questions may be raised by studying the sociogram. The sociogram lays bare the problems; it is the function of those who guide and teach children to do something about them.

CAUSES OF MENTAL ILLNESS

6.51 *Importance of Determining the Sources of Mental Illness*

The physician treating an illness of a physiological nature proceeds in an objective manner to locate the source of the trouble. He is careful not to let subjective evidence divert his attention in determining the real cause or causes. Once the source of the trouble is found, the physician attempts to remove or alleviate it. This does not mean the end of the illness, for he may have remedial work to do in repairing the damage done to the ill person. The treatment of mentally ill persons proceeds in exactly the same objective manner. The source or sources of trouble—and in many cases they will be very complex—must be found and eliminated or alleviated as much as possible. Diagnoses of mental illnesses must be objective, or else the real sources of trouble may be camouflaged by subjective influences. When once the real source or sources are located, then appropriate therapy can be applied.

The causes of many less serious cases of mental illness may be found by the classroom teacher, perhaps in cooperation with his

associates. Through counseling and therapy in the classroom, the teacher and his associates may be able to provide the necessary remedial measures. It is well that they know about some of the possible sources of trouble. Some of the more important follow.

6.52 *Factors of a Physiological Nature*

Because the source of difficulty in many maladjusted children has been traced to physical conditions, a thorough physical examination should be given every maladjusted child. An endocrine-gland survey should not be overlooked as a part of the examination. Malfunction of endocrine glands may contribute to the child's inability to adjust successfully to a social situation.

Malnutrition caused by a lack of proper food and rest may lower efficiency to such an extent that the individual is unable to do the work normally expected of children of his age and grade. Failure as a student may motivate the child to attempt success in being the room's best attention getter by practicing antisocial behavior.

Impaired vision or hearing has been traced as the cause of maladjusted behavior. A sixth-grade boy had the reputation of being the worst troublemaker in the room. An ear examination revealed a pronounced hearing deficiency. Adjustments were made in the room to compensate for this loss, and within a short time he was working constructively rather than destructively.

The differences in physiological development between boys and girls may create some problems; girls mature, on an average, two years earlier than boys. The maturing age for the two sexes likewise varies. For girls the range is from nine to seventeen years; for boys it is from eleven to seventeen years.[25] It would be wise to look for physiological factors as the cause of or contributing factors to maladjustments.

6.53 *Factors Found in Home and Community*

It may be imperative to study the family and home background, and the neighborhood setting in which it is located, from a psychological and sociological point of view.

The growing child needs security; it is the home that must provide it, if possible. If the home is insecure, the child is likely to develop

[25] Segel, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

a feeling of insecurity. The attitude of the parents toward their child, prompting either too rigid restrictions or oversolicitude, may have a deep-seated effect upon the personality of the child. Traits of parents—jealousy, nagging, suspiciousness,—are easily imitated by children and made part of their personalities. Children have been known to develop patterns of lying and stealing from examples set by their parents.

Experiences which children have in the community outside of the home may also be the source of difficulty. Associations with delinquent groups or groups with antisocial tendencies may easily be a source of trouble. There may be gangs of ill repute in the neighborhood. The neighborhood movie may choose a type of picture which contributes to the formation of questionable habits and attitudes. All possible contributing factors within the community should be thoroughly investigated.

6.54 *Factors Found in the School*

Conditions in the school may be the underlying cause of maladjusted behavior. The physical nature of the schoolroom must be pleasant. The personality of the teacher, his viewpoint on social control, his philosophy toward the individual pupil and his needs, and his methods and techniques in providing learning experiences are potential underlying causes of pupil maladjustment. The teacher can do much in preventing maladjustments if he has a wholesome personality and realizes that his job is to bring about the greatest all-round growth possible in each child while he is under his supervision. See Sec. 6.60 for additional information on the teacher and his importance in the schoolroom.

6.55 *Factors Present in the Individual's Social Group*

Through childhood, the child accepts membership in the family group and other groups of his age without much question. For the security of the home, he is willing to conform with its standards and customs. As the child moves into the adolescent period, social membership takes on new meanings and relationships. The adolescent now, for the first time, realizes and feels the significance of being accepted by his peers. He begins to strive for place and status in the group. Moreover, the adolescent begins to pull away from

the influence of the home and develop strong ties with other persons. Serious conflicts between adolescent and parent often develop when the parent is reluctant to grant the individual new freedoms in establishing new patterns of conduct demanded by social groups. The adolescent sometimes develops resentments against the home when it appears that social standing reflected in the home does not conform with standards which he has set. Social status is an exceedingly important thing to the adolescent and is the source of many frustrations and imbalances.

PREVENTIVE AND REMEDIAL MENTAL-HEALTH MEASURES

6.56 *The Problem of Referral of Emotionally Maladjusted Students*

Determining the point at which a student should be referred by the teacher or counselor to a special guidance worker is important. Those pupils whose problems can be resolved by the teacher or counselor should be so handled; there will be many of this degree and type. The response of the student to individual and group impacts gives important evidence of existing maladjustments and indicates, to some extent, along with other evidences, the need for special treatment. Evidences of this type must be relied upon, for the most part, by teachers and counselors. If psychiatric or special counseling services are available in the school, the teacher should refer to such services pupils displaying symptoms of imbalance which seem to need special help. Notes on what the teacher has observed should accompany each child. In schools where psychiatric or special counseling services are not available, the teacher should work with the parents and other persons or agencies in the community who might be in a position to help.

Teachers, before making their observations, should be given help in identifying the various types of behavior which would be symptomatic of the presence of an emotional imbalance.

6.57 *Guidance Services for the Whole Child*

The presence of well-organized guidance programs which function as an integral part of the total educational program can contribute greatly to the prevention and remediation of mental illness involv-

ing social and emotional maladjustments. The services of guidance should begin when the child enters school and should continue to serve the child as he grows and matures through the years of his formal education. The services should contribute to the child's academic, social, vocational, and physical- and mental-health needs.

Normal maturity means that the individual pupil, through successive stages, learns to adjust satisfactorily according to his growth patterns and without frustrations and imbalances. The determination of individual pupil-growth patterns, planning and organizing curricular and other growth experiences in keeping with these growth patterns, and guidance of children into the various adjustments constitute guidance with real mental-health values. Because of the complexities of pupil growth and because, too, of the many experiences which detract children from normal maturity patterns, it cannot be expected that the need for remediation of maladjustment can be eliminated. For those pupils who do develop maladjustments, guidance services which diagnose or determine the cause or causes and those that provide therapy must be provided. The schools must attempt to reduce the number of pupils having frustrations and imbalances through continuous guidance activities. Thus the schools will contribute most to individual pupil growth and development, ensuring greater returns for society at large. Pupils with personal problems fail to grow as they should.

6.58 *Individual Counseling on Emotional Problems*

The student with an emotional disturbance has a problem and needs help. Teachers as well as special counselors need training in the development of competencies which will permit them to handle satisfactorily this type of counseling situation. It is not expected that the teacher will have the training or the time to provide assistance for persons having deeply embedded disturbances. The teacher should, however, be prepared to deal with transitory emotional problems. Emotional problems of this type, if not eliminated at the time they appear, may eventually evolve into serious conditions.

For students with deeply embedded personality problems, the services of a specialist may be needed. The teacher can assist and

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work with the special counselor in providing therapies within the classroom which may facilitiate the eventual rehabilitation of the student.

Emotions are feelings, and modification of them must come from within the individual. For the special counselor who works with persons having deeply rooted personal problems and for the teacher who counsels pupils with transitory problems or who assists the special counselor with pupils, the approach must be in the direction of helping the person attack his problem from within. If the student fully realizes the problem, its solution in the form of adjustive behavior is likely to follow; the act of freeing himself from emotional tensions may be sufficient to allow him to use his intellect to go forward and adjust his behavior intelligently without further help. Counseling on emotional problems centers around letting the student express himself about his problem in the light of adjustive possibilities. Segel [26] states that "the essence of individual guidance is to give youth the opportunity to express himself in appropriate ways about his problem." Certainly the person doing the counseling should help the student to clarify his thinking about his problem, keeping in mind at all times that he should not attempt to solve the problem directly for the student. Decisions made by the student rather than by the counselor have much more meaning in the problem-solving activity.

In emphasizing the nondirective approach to counseling situations for teachers and counselors, Arbuckle [27] lists the following principles:

1. The major concern is always with the individual rather than the problem.

2. The atmosphere is understanding and permissive. . . . There is no limit to the expression of feelings.

3. The emphasis is on emotions and feelings. . . . The counselor recognizes and is keenly aware of the feeling content, and he strives for a situation where the child can accept reality and make intellectual choices on that basis.

4. The counselor does not try to solve problems. He attempts, rather, to create the atmosphere in which it is possible for the child

[26] *Op. cit.*, p. 56.

[27] Dugald S. Arbuckle. *Teacher Counseling*, pp. 170–171. Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc. 1950.

to get rid of his negative feelings, to move on to a realization of choices that lie ahead and to decide what must be done about them.

5. In keeping with the above principles, the counselor does not judge, moralize, discipline, give advice, or act as a sentimentalist.

See Secs. 2.1, 2.2, 2.3, and 6.47 for additional information on counseling.

6.59 *Learning Experiences Based on Principles of Mental Health*

One of the best mental-hygiene approaches, from either a preventive or a remedial viewpoint, is to treat each child as an individual and to provide learning experiences suitable to his needs, interests, and abilities. Individual standards should be established for each child. The work should be neither too easy nor too difficult for the individual pupil. The development of feelings of superiority or inferiority among pupils should be guarded against at all times. Each child should be given an opportunity to experience success in accordance with his level of abilities. The setting of the schoolroom should be one of success.

Children with below-average school aptitude may be trying to achieve a standard suitable to average or above-average students. Failure to achieve the successes expected of him may cause a student to develop maladjustments. Feelings of inferiority and inadequacy are developed in this manner. Similarly, the superior student may find the work too easy for him and may find ample time to get into mischief. Attitudes of superiority may be developed to such an extent that the child manifests bullying tendencies. Each child should be made to feel that he is important and that somebody is interested in his welfare. The shy and secluded child should be brought into group experiences and given opportunity for expression. The trend in education to provide integrated experiences as reflected in core programs and common-learnings classes has significant mental-health values. These programs are geared to the current needs of children and society and thus have meaning for pupils. See Sec. 2.24 for more information on such programs.

6.60 *The Teacher as a Factor in Mental-health Programs*

The regular classroom is a natural social grouping and provides an ideal situation in which boys and girls may learn to adjust their be-

havior patterns to conventional patterns. The success of any mental-hygiene program, either preventive or remedial, is determined by the nature of the teacher's personality and his philosophy of the growing child. Teachers themselves must have pleasing and well-integrated personalities if they expect to develop balanced personalities among children under their direction. No child, much less one with a personality problem, will be drawn to and have confidence in a teacher who is unsympathetic and has no time for his individual needs. "In general, pupils have unsatisfactory relationships with maladjusted teachers and prefer well-adjusted leadership, which can reach down to their level without display of infantile emotions, without condescension, and with ability to demonstrate mature emotional patterns." [28] It is unlikely that an emotionally immature teacher will be able to help his pupils attain emotional maturity.

Maintaining harmonious social interactions among pupils is the responsibility of the teacher. Some pupil personalities conflict, and the alert teacher is soon aware of those that do. Seating should be arranged so that those pupils whose personalities clash can be separated and those who get along well be grouped together. The teacher must know the social structure of his group and the interpersonal relationships which exist.

The socially immature child must always be treated as an individual and never as a member of an erring class. Individual adjustment will be much more effective than through formal classroom procedure. The remedy chosen for the socially immature individual must always be focused on the cause of the misbehavior rather than on the specific act or misdemeanor. A remedy applied to the unsocial act of behavior does not remove the cause of the misbehavior. Children prefer teachers who conduct classrooms in an orderly manner, who are fair in their judgments, and who are democratic and cooperative in approach.

6.61 *Group Dynamics and Mental Health*

The successful interaction of individuals in a group is the basis for the democratic way of life. If we expect the product of our schools to fit into and serve society in furthering the democratic way of life,

[28] Robert A. Davis. *Educational Psychology*, p. 156. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1948.

they must learn in school, through group living, the basic essentials of the process. Segel [29] states:

> In the process of group dynamics, the aim is to produce democratic persons because only through such persons can effective and progressive actions be initiated. In this process, the group recognizes the ability of some individuals to do one thing better than others and these individuals are by that fact given more responsibility in that area than others.

The values that come through cooperative group thinking provide opportunity for the interplay and exchange of ideas. Each individual, through the expression of his ideas, grows immeasurably; at the same time, the other members of the group may profit. This is democracy in action—an important group-dynamics experience which every school is privileged to provide its students. The mental-health values from this type of experience are significant.

6.62 *The Child-guidance Clinic and Mental Health*

Seriously maladjusted school children are in need of immediate assistance which can best be provided by specially trained personnel. The child-guidance clinic has come into existence for this reason. Services needed in this type of clinic include those of the psychiatrist, the psychologist, the pediatrician, and the social worker. The clinic is usually under the direction of a psychiatrist.

In some instances, the clinic is community-wide in its service. It is used as a means of combating delinquency and youth problems in the community.

Obviously, the guidance clinic established as an integral part of school and community can be sponsored only by the larger cities. There are ways, however, in which seriously maladjusted children in smaller towns and rural areas can be treated. Kirkpatrick [30] comments upon the possibility of help for these children as follows:

> The majority of our child guidance clinics are in larger cities. Rural areas are as a rule offered inadequate services if any at all. . . . Clinics in rural areas and in smaller centers of population are usually operated under the supervision of some state department, either of welfare, health,

[29] *Op. cit.*, p. 48.

[30] Milton E. Kirkpatrick. "Community Clinics," *The Phi Delta Kappan*. Vol. 22, No. 7 (March, 1940), pp. 352–353.

or state hospital. Their service is chiefly diagnostic in character, but they serve large areas and in some states, particularly Massachusetts and New York, it is possible for any child to have the benefits of clinic study. The greatest handicap is that these traveling clinics meet only at intervals and continuity of treatment is difficult to preserve.

6.63 *The Child-guidance Conference and Mental Health*

The child-guidance conference has become an integral part of the guidance program. Under this plan, all of the personnel in one building—the principal, teachers, nurses, psychologists, and any other workers charged with the responsibility of child direction—meet to discuss the problems of individual children in that building. This plan elicits the united help of all who are interested in a problem. Working cooperatively on the problem, they can help many children and satisfactory adjustments can be made. The group may need to refer really serious cases to specialists for treatment.

6.64 *Use of the Case Study and Mental Health*

Case histories should be developed for all pupils with pronounced social and emotional maladjustments. The case history is the only sure way of studying the problem from all angles and collecting data which should point to the cause of the maladjustment. This procedure permits an over-all view of entangling factors. The findings of personnel working on the case, whether in or out of school, should be filed in the study. Information concerning school achievement, medical examinations, psychiatric and psychological reports, emotional-stability ratings, ratings on various personality traits and social development, teacher judgments, and reports of visiting teachers and outside welfare agencies giving information on social-economic conditions in the home and community should be included.

Counselors, psychologists, or other professionally trained personnel should direct the case study if they are available. However, if they are not available, the classroom teacher can do much in compiling case-study materials. He will be able to make a significant contribution in determining the causes and providing treatment with many children. See Sec. 1.8 for additional information on the case-study technique.

6.65 *The Visiting Teacher and Mental Health*

The home and school must work closely together in cases where children display maladjustments which interfere with satisfactory adjustment and progress in school. An increasing number of schools are adding visiting teachers to their staffs. Special training in case-study techniques gives the visiting teacher a tool through which the causes of maladjustment are determined and upon which appropriate remedial and therapeutic measures may be based. The visiting teacher is in a position to work with other community agencies and to receive the benefits of their services in handling certain cases.

6.66 *The Special Class or School for the Mentally Ill*

The placement of mentally ill students in special classes, schools, or treatment centers is used in some of the larger cities. The fact that the results have shown varying degrees of success indicates that it is an adjustment with many complexities. It is an adjustment which should be attempted by a school only if facilities and expert personnel are available to plan and carry out the program. Some points for consideration are the following:

1. *Justification for the special adjustment.* There is unanimous agreement among guidance workers that every attempt should be made to bring about satisfactory adjustment of the mentally ill student through the health and guidance services of the school with the student remaining in his normal class or grade grouping. The natural class or grade grouping may in itself have therapeutic values which should not be overlooked. The special adjustment should be used only when rehabilitation is impossible in the natural grouping and when the special facilities of staff and program of the special adjustment hold promise of help for the student.

The special class or school should never be regarded as the "dumping ground" for the "bad boys and girls" which a teacher would like to eliminate from his room. Transfer from regular room or school should be part of the guidance function and should come only after careful study has been made of the child's needs. The adjustment should come not because the child is "bad" but because the new adjustment holds promise of help.

2. *Determining those who should be placed in the special adjustment.* The decision to transfer a maladjusted pupil to a special class or school is one which should be made by clinically trained guidance workers. The services of a psychologist or psychiatrist or both are needed to study the pupil's problem clinically and decide accordingly. Careful study of the child's needs should precede any decision to place the child in a special school or class.

Information about the student and his problem should be gathered from many sources. Test scores are needed to show school aptitudes, achievement, special aptitudes, personal adjustment, and other factors which might help in the process of diagnosis and determination of needs. A complete physical examination should be given to detect any possible physical defects causing the maladjustment. In addition to the findings of the psychologist and the psychiatrist, valuable information may be gained from visiting teachers, previous teachers and principals, parents, and welfare agencies. The pupil's cumulative record may furnish much valuable information.

In Los Angeles, the following procedure is followed:

For each child sent to a welfare class, a conference is held by those interested in his welfare—the principal of the school, the teacher, the parent, the attendance supervisor, and others. The reports of the physician, psychologist, former teachers, and welfare agencies are studied. The boy or girl is then given a chance to tell his own story of the case. A decision is made as to the best course for the future. There may be a change of schools, a different home or community, or assignment to a welfare class.[31]

3. *The program of the special adjustment.* The type of program carried on in the special class or school is of utmost importance. So far as the special class is concerned, Stullken [32] states:

The special class affords an opportunity for school systems to determine the best procedures for dealing with the socially maladjusted by working on such specialized techniques of education—psychotherapies, play

[31] Los Angeles City Schools. *Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children. The Child with a Problem.* School Publication 313, p. 23. Los Angeles: Los Angeles City Schools. 1941.

[32] Edward H. Stullken. "Special Schools and Classes for the Socially Maladjusted." *The Education of Exceptional Children,* p. 294. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago, 1950. Quoted by permission of the Society.

therapies, nondirective counseling, and psychodramatics. In general, little has been done in these areas, and the organization of special classes for problem cases offers the opportunity for scientific studies that should yield notable contributions to progress in the education of socially maladjusted children.

The special school, which is a possibility only in larger cities, is privileged to offer a much more elaborate program than regular schools can. Such schools should provide a variety of curricular offerings in order to meet the varying needs of its students. Academic as well as vocational experiences should be available. Care should be taken to ensure that such schools do not become "vocational schools for bad boys and girls." Since a number of the enrollees are likely to be retarded, adequate remedial work should be provided. Recreation and physical-education experiences are important. All experiences should have mental-hygiene values. "All such schools should make provision for vocational, educational, and personal guidance. In fact, the special school for the socially maladjusted should be a combination of a special school and a child guidance clinic." [33]

4. *Dangers of stigmas and the special adjustment.* Whenever pupils are segregated for a reason, especially for social maladjustment, an unnatural social grouping has been created. Children are quick to sense the reason for the grouping and, in many instances, attach stigmas. Parents and even some teachers have also been known to attach these stigmas. Therefore, it behooves the school sponsoring these special facilities to take every precaution against this. Much of the good work of the special class or school will be negated if its pupils are stigmatized. Edward Stullken, principal of the special school in Chicago known as the Montefiore School, believes that this can be held to a minimum. He states:

> The experience of the Montefiore School indicates that it [segregation] can be done with very little, if any, stigma being attached to the transfer of a boy from a regular to a special school. The theory and practice has been that boys are not transferred to it for punishment but to give them opportunities for adjustment which the city cannot afford to provide in every school.[34]

[33] *Ibid.*, p. 295.

[34] Edward H. Stullken. "Education of the Socially Handicapped." *The Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. 23, No. 2 (October, 1940), p. 68.

5. *Emphasis upon guidance and the special adjustment.* Preliminary to the placement of the mentally ill pupil in the special facility and continuing through his growth experiences and therapies provided in the special adjustment, the emphasis must be upon guidance. Understanding the needs of these pupils, followed by services and experiences designed to meet these needs, must be the prime objective. It is a complex guidance function and one which must be attempted only by those schools equipped with facilities and personnel having special competencies adequate to deal with the many complexities. Caution should be observed in every step of the planning and establishment of special services of this type. It should not be overlooked, however, that much excellent work is being done in special classes and schools. Goodykoontz [35] substantiates this statement by saying: "Special classes and schools for handicapped children provide a fine service in the adjustment of children. Experience has shown that with proper training and guidance, the majority of these boys and girls become adequate citizens in their own social groups."

SOME COMMON BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS FOUND IN SCHOOLS

6.67 *Understanding Social and Emotional Development*

Growing boys and girls present individual growth patterns for social and emotional development just as they present growth patterns for physical growth or educational achievement. It is always important to consider first the stage in the child's development at which some undesirable social or emotional act displays itself, and it is important to note the frequency with which the act occurs.

Children learn to behave in socially and emotionally accepted manners; this learning begins at a very early age. "Each individual in the classroom brings with him a different pattern of emotional and social behavior which has accumulated from experiences outside the school and from those which the school setting has created." [36] As

[35] Bess Goodykoontz. "How School Services Help to Prevent Delinquency." *Juvenile Delinquency and the Schools*, p. 105. Forty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1948. Quoted by permission of the Society.

[36] Davis, *op. cit.*, p. 151.

the child matures through experience under the guidance of a mature person who knows child development, he learns new techniques of satisfactory adjustment which brings personal satisfactions as well as group acceptance.

The display of some undesirable aspect of behavior on the part of the pupil may be his attempt to find the solution to a problem which he has encountered in a particular stage of his development. "Many specific acts of behavior, such as stealing, destruction of school property, inattention in the classroom, and impertinence, are symptomatic of efforts to adjust. The seriousness of such behavior should be determined, not entirely by its significance to adult standards, but by the importance of the offence to the child's own development." [37] Moreover, if the offensive act is repeated over a period of time and becomes a part of the pupil's personality pattern, then it is apparent that the pattern is evidence of immaturity, and special help may be needed to determine the cause and to provide the necessary therapies.

It is important that the social and emotional adjustment of a pupil be judged by a standard acceptable for the individual's particular stage of development and not by an adult standard. For example, the young child may resort to temper tantrums in an attempt to gain a point, whereas by the time he reaches adolescence he has acquired, through maturity, certain skills, knowledges, and attitudes which make it possible to gain his point by actions wholly acceptable to his group. Social and emotional maturity is a gradual process and comes as a result of the patient guidance and direction on the part of those responsible for the learning experiences of the growing child.

It must not be overlooked, however, that evidences of immaturity —acts which show persistency or which are not in keeping with growth levels—will be found in every schoolroom. The teacher must be alert to these signs and assist in every way possible, or through referrals, in meeting the needs of these pupils.

Following are some of the more typical problems with which the teacher must concern himself:

1. *Stealing.* Respect for the ownership of some possession which belongs to another person is an attitude which must be learned by

[37] *Ibid.*, p. 142.

all children between the ages of six and ten.[38] At this stage of their development, items usually taken are coins from the family purse, or pencils, trinkets, and similar items possibly from a schoolmate. Judgment and control from within must be learned by the child. The initial experiences of the child in taking something that does not belong to him should be regarded as errors, but they should be used to teach the child that this is unacceptable behavior. Public apologies and displays, in many instances, will do more harm than good. Restoration should certainly be part of the lesson, but it should be accomplished unobtrusively. Pupil responsibility for the restoration without help from the parent is good procedure. Usually one or two lessons of this sort are sufficient for the child to develop inner controls which eliminate future acts of theft. The continuation of acts of stealing indicates that something is basically wrong and that the pupil needs expert help.

Over and above the fact that almost all children in the early elementary school years need help in building inner controls in combating stealing, there are other reasons why individuals resort to stealing. Basically, it can be said that it is a means of reaching some goal which seems exceedingly important to the individual. It may mean that he has actual physical need for the thing stolen, it may mean that he is trying to get the attention of his peers and build prestige with them, or it may mean a number of other things. "Most children steal, however, to gratify desires; they are too weak to resist, or too spoiled to think they should resist anything they see that they want."[39] The reason behind stealing should be ascertained. The child can then be shown ways and means of reaching the goals in mind through socially acceptable channels. Teachers will need to refer most of the behavior problems of this degree to expertly trained guidance workers.

2. *Cheating*. Cheating seems to be one of the most prevalent types of social immaturity present in our schools today. It is evidence that the individual has not been helped in the development of inner controls or that conditions in his environment are such that cheating

[38] Marian E. Breckenridge and E. Lee Vincent. *Child Development*, p. 473. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company. 1944.

[39] *Ibid.*, p. 478.

must be resorted to by certain individuals in order to attain goals. Feelings of insecurity prompt many students to cheat.

Cheating usually indicates that the child is attempting to meet a standard which is beyond his level of aptitude and which has probably been set by teachers or parents or both. When class standing or grades is emphasized in the group by the teacher, the less capable student is likely to keep pace with the group and establish "prestige" in the eyes of his peers and teacher by cheating. Schools which operate on fixed, arbitrary grade standards and hold that all pupils should attain the same standard of performance are setting the stage for cheating. Obviously, a lessening of emphasis on grades as such, more emphasis upon understanding, and the establishment of learning rates and goals for each child according to his capacities should help to eliminate the need for cheating.

In addition to the establishment of learning goals according to each student's abilities and needs in the organization of growth experiences in school, there is real opportunity for helping students to develop desirable attitudes toward dishonesty.

The life-adjustment booklet entitled *What is Honesty?* which was prepared by Thaddeus B. Clark [40] is exceedingly well written in the vocabulary of the secondary school pupil. It might well serve as the basis for several group discussions in home rooms or common-learnings classes. Group dynamics, having pupils voice their attitudes and beliefs, and the impact of how others in the group feel toward dishonesty seem to have real value in helping students to develop inner controls toward cheating.

The values which may come by having the pupils themselves work on the problem through group discussions are significant. The pupils of Fordson High School, Dearborn, Mich., developed the following statements on cheating:

1. More emphasis should be placed upon honor, and the dishonesty of cheating should be stressed.

2. Whenever a test is given, teachers should watch carefully to prevent cheating. This should be done, not just to catch cheaters but to protect the student who readily doesn't want to cheat but who may be put on the spot by his classmates.

[40] Thaddeus B. Clark. *What Is Honesty?* Chicago: Science Research Associates. 1952.

3. More theme-type tests should be given, even if they are short.

4. Plenty of warning should be given before a test so that students who are willing to study for it will have time to do so. Students get frantic when hard, surprise tests are given.

5. The philosophy should be accepted that cheating is definitely wrong and undesirable. Cheating cannot be stopped if most of the kids and some of the teachers think it is smart.

6. Teachers should try to make schoolwork interesting and help the kids see how what they learn will be a help to them later.

7. Students should be allowed to help decide the value which will be given to different kinds of marks, such as: recitations, oral quizzes, maps, notes, and notebooks.

8. Teachers should try to have several marks in their books for each student before deciding on the mark for the period.

9. More oral quizzes should be given and more oral work required.

10. Teachers should try to get together and arrive at some uniformity as to the amount of work to be assigned and ways of marking.[41]

3. *Lying.* Misrepresentation of the truth takes on different meanings for pupils of different ages. Preschool children often mix truth with that which is imagined. For the most part, the child is absolutely sincere in what he is saying, but because of his immaturity has trouble in discriminating between truth and untruth.

As children grow older, there are many reasons which evoke lying. It should be remembered that lying may normally follow the act of stealing. They may both be part of the same sequence of events. Children sometimes see their parents or others about them lie, so they, too, resort to lying. Children sometimes lie to maintain security and escape punishment for some act. If corrective measures are to be applied for immature acts, they should always be in keeping with the nature of the act and designed to help the child with his immaturity and personality development.

Many children resort to lying because of feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. Pupils sometimes hope to gain status and group acceptance through falsifications. They should be helped to gain

[41] Sylvia Ciernick. "What Can We Do about Cheating?" *Journal of the National Education Association.* Vol. 39, No. 1 (January, 1950), p. 57.

status, to "attract attention," through socially acceptable and constructive means. The teacher can offer real help to each student who attempts to build security on insecure foundations by searching for strengths and aptitudes through which genuine expression and group recognition can be built. Pupils who display evolved patterns of distorting the truth particularly when insecurity is involved may need the assistance of special guidance workers.

By eliminating those pressures in the classroom which demand the impossible of a child, many situations which call for lying can be eliminated. If obtainable goals are established for each child and if each child sets goals for himself, social and otherwise, which he can attain, the need for the individual to falsify should be alleviated.

4. *Bullying.* Bullying tendencies are usually evidences of immaturity, and steps should be taken to determine the causes when they appear. Bullying tendencies sometimes appear when the pupil is permitted through idleness to get into mischief. The schoolwork may not be planned according to his needs or levels of abilities. More often, however, the causes are deep seated and denote social and emotional immaturity. Davis [42] states:

> Bullying is almost exclusively a trait of boys and occurs with uniform frequency between the ages of 9 to 15 years. It appears without great variation of incidence in the average intelligence range among young boys. There is a tendency for it to increase in older boys with increase of intelligence quotients from 60 to 99. Beyond this level it occurs rarely.

Persistence of patterns of bullying signify the need for help from special guidance workers, and the teacher should not delay referral of this type of student to guidance workers. The fact that "bullying may be due to jealousy, or may serve as a compensation for feelings of inferiority" [43] indicates that the need for special counseling and therapy may be great.

5. *Shyness.* The shy, timid, or bashful student is most often found in the elementary school. "Bashfulness and shyness are more common between the ages of 6 and 10 than at any other ages but are not significantly associated with intelligence. Many isolated cases, how-

[42] Davis, *op. cit.*, p. 150.
[43] Breckenridge and Vincent, *op. cit.*, p. 480.

ever, are found on the very high intelligence levels. The traits occur with slightly greater frequency among girls, particularly among the early ages." [44]

Evidences of shyness denote immature social and emotional development. Group experiences have been lacking or have been ineffectual in helping the pupil develop techniques for effective group participation. In many instances, the parent has denied the child normal group experiences. Schoolroom experiences may also contribute to the withdrawing tendency. Repeated failure of students to meet grade or group standards may contribute to feelings of inadequacy and symptoms of withdrawal. Parents, too, may set standards which their children are incapable of attaining. Treating each pupil individually and setting standards and goals within his reach may assist materially in alleviating patterns of withdrawal. Many children having withdrawing tendencies may have deep-seated emotional problems. These symptoms are sometimes accompanied by feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. For these children, the services of a special guidance worker may be needed. The teacher should be alert to the things that he can do in the schoolroom situation which will support the work of the specialist in the rehabilitation of the pupil. A warm, understanding attitude on the part of the teacher may, in itself, have significant therapeutic values.

6. *Truancy.* Since there are a number of separate reasons or possible combinations which may lie at the base of truancy, it is not always easy to determine the real cause. Mullen [45] comments:

> It is axiomatic in educational philosophy that the child who resorts to truancy from school or to disorderly behavior when in school does so because he is unhappy and unsuccessful in school. The reasons why he is unhappy and unsuccessful may be sought in his physical condition and history, in his innate mental capacities, in his home and community environment, or in the curriculum, teaching practices, and environment of his school.

Undoubtedly, the school will need the help of the home and possibly other community agencies in determining the cause or causes

[44] Davis, *op. cit.*, p. 150.

[45] Frances A. Mullen. "Truancy and Classroom Disorder as Symptoms of Personality Problems." *Journal of Educational Psychology.* Vol. 41, No. 2 (February, 1950), p. 97.

of truancy, since the pupil is the product of his total environment. Detailed case studies may be necessary in the solution of the problem. The severity of the case will determine whether the teacher should refer the case to special guidance workers.

The removal or alleviation of the cause or causes of truancy does not necessarily solve the problem. The pupil may need counseling and therapy to remove frustrations, thus permitting him to adjust successfully to the schoolroom situation.

The truant pupil may, in time, become an early leaver. Segel points out that, in many cases, the child who eventually leaves school is able to relieve himself of frustrations because he is free to start on a search for a new goal and new method of working toward that goal.[46] Counseling should always be oriented toward the eventual rehabilitation of the truant, whether it means remaining in school or seeking a new adjustment outside of school. Even early leaving of school for the truant may be considered a desirable outcome of successful counseling of this type of student.

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CHAPTER 7 *Guiding Slow-learning Children*

UNDERSTANDING THE NEEDS OF SLOW-LEARNING CHILDREN

7.1 *A Point of View on Slow-learning Children*

Slow-learning children of varying degrees are found in every school. They make up an important segment of the school population. They are entitled to every service and adjustment possible which will facilitate their growth. Practically all will find a useful place in society. It would be folly to let go undeveloped the human resources found in the group. For the most part, they behave like other children with the one exception that it takes them longer to learn. They have the same interests as other children and respond to group situations much like other children. Many of them possess aptitudes which exceed those found in children who learn more rapidly. The key word in guiding the growth experiences of these children is patience. They cannot be hurried. They have an individual learning rate to which their school experiences must be geared. Since learning aptitudes for these children vary so greatly, it is necessary to enlist the help of the home and certain state facilities, in addition to the school, in meeting the needs of certain of these children having very slow learning rates.

7.2 *Measuring the Learning Aptitudes of Slow-learning Children*

The measurement of the learning aptitudes and determination of the needs of slow-learning children can best be accomplished by a well-trained and experienced psychologist with the help of the psychiatrist, the health services, and any other person or agency which might help. If the possibility is present that the findings might mean

institutionalization for the very slow learner, perhaps outside personnel such as social workers and community agencies could help.

To have their slow-learning children properly appraised, smaller schools, without child-study departments, might seek the aid of professional personnel in neighboring schools or perhaps in state institutions of higher learning. State departments of public instruction might well add to their list of services a traveling clinic for the measurement of slow-learning children in the smaller schools and communities. However, many slow-learning children, especially those whose learning aptitudes permit them to be admitted to school, may well be measured by personnel ordinarily found in the small school. It is obvious that those children presenting very slow rates should be measured by personnel especially trained in this work.

7.3 *The Identification of Slow-learning Children*

Traditionally, slow-learning children were measured and classified in rather closely defined groups by means of the general intelligence test. To attempt to categorize children chiefly on the basis of a general measure of intelligence is to overlook the fact that children have several different learning aptitudes. Some of a pupil's strengths might be obscured and overlooked if a measure of the various learning aptitudes were reflected in a single score. When all of the subtest scores of a measure of general intelligence are low, the total score, or IQ, is likely to be more valuable as a predictor of general success in school than when there is variation among the subtest scores. The factorial type of school aptitude test, which gives separate scores on different types of school aptitudes, would seem to have greater value in determining the fitness and needs of slow-learning children than the general intelligence test, which gives one over-all measure. The factorial approach to aptitude testing provides a keener analysis of the potentialities of the slow-learning child. This topic is discussed in more detail in Secs. 1.12 and 8.2. When slow-learning children have been admitted to school, diagnostic achievement tests will add valuable data in determining their needs. They will tell the teacher where to start to teach in order that growth experiences may be adjusted to the child's individual level.

In testing children to determine variance in ability to learn, extreme care should be taken to be sure that other factors are not

affecting the child to such an extent that his test scores reflect a false picture. Children who have normal learning aptitude but who come from homes where English is not spoken will obviously rate lower on aptitude tests. Lowered visual acuity, impaired hearing, or the presence of emotional disturbances may cause a child to appear to be a slow learner. Inadequate provisions of proper food and rest in the home may cause the child to appear inattentive and listless. All factors of a physical or emotional nature should be determined and corrected before learning aptitudes are measured. Irremediable factors involving language inadequacies and physical and emotional conditions present in the child should be recognized and allowances on aptitude-test scores should be made.

Teachers are in a position to observe the day-by-day accomplishments of children. For this reason, teacher evaluations of suspected slow-learning children are very important. If, on the basis of accomplishments, the teacher feels that a child has more learning ability than objective measures show the child should be given the benefit of the teacher's higher appraisal. Actual performance in the classroom situation is a real measure of success which, after all, should be the objective of all education.

7.4 *Characteristics of Slow-learning Children*

Understanding the characteristics of slow-learning children greatly facilitates the task of providing meaningful growth experiences for them. Teachers of these children must be aware of their characteristics in order to guide them and provide for their needs. Sullivan [1] has summarized the characteristics of these children as follows:

1. Short attention and concentration span
2. Slow reaction time
3. Limited ability to evaluate materials for relevancy
4. Limited powers of self-direction
5. Limited ability to work with abstractions and to generalize
6. Slowness to form associations between words and ideas
7. Failure to recognize familiar elements in new situations
8. Habit of learning very slowly and forgetting very quickly
9. Very local point of view

[1] Helen B. Sullivan. "Teaching the Slow Learner." *Journal of the National Education Association*. Vol. 40, No. 2 (February, 1951), p. 115.

10. Inability to set up and realize standards of workmanship
11. Lack of originality or creativeness
12. Inability to analyze, do problem solving, or think critically
13. Lack of power to use the higher mental processes

Even though slow-learning children possess characteristics quite unlike those of other children in school, it should be remembered that they are like other children in many respects. They have much the same interests, desires, and ambitions as do other children. They respond to the same motives much in the same way as other children. They like to excel others in some activities at least part of the time. They respond to feelings of success and failure much the same as other children. They enjoy the same games, clubs, activities, and social experiences as other children and in many instances excel other children. In short, one cannot differentiate them from other children except in their lack of aptitude to learn.

7.5 *Needed Cumulative Records for Slow-learning Children*

In determining the potentialities and aptitudes of slow-learning children, a complete educational diagnosis should be made. Every item of information should be gathered which might in some way throw light on the needs and capabilities of the slow learner. This information might well be included in the pupil's cumulative record, which is the child's record of growth and accomplishments. This record should be kept in the child's room for ready use by the teacher in charge. The teacher needs to know about the child's background—his home and community, abilities, interests, and progress in the past. This record increases in value as the child progresses through his school experiences.

The Illinois Department of Instruction [2] lists the following types of information which should be included in a cumulative record for slow-learning children:

1. A history—including information as to the home, religious life, economic status, social well-being, community factors affecting the home and child, etc.

[2] Department of Public Instruction. *The Educable Mentally Handicapped.* Circular Series B, No. 12, p. 15. Springfield, Ill.: Department of Public Instruction. 1948.

2. A cumulative educational record including standardized test scores
3. Psychological studies showing rate of mental growth
4. Medical records, including data on vision, hearing, and speech tests
5. Samples of the pupil's classwork
6. Notes on interviews with child, parents, etc.
7. Statements from teachers regarding special abilities or learning difficulties
8. Copies of letters and reports from other agencies and individuals, carbon copies of letters and reports to them
9. Annual summary statements showing his progress

It should be kept in mind that evaluation of the slow-learning child should always be made in terms of all existing pertinent data.

7.6 *The Very Slow Learner and His Adjustment*

It is fortunate that there are only a few children, as compared to the total school population, whose levels of capabilities in relation to the total personality are so limited that they are unable to profit from the public school program and thus need to be placed in a state school or remain at home. These pupils are, for the most part, custodial wards of society, unable to make significant contributions to society. They will not be able to assume civic or social responsibilities to any appreciable degree. The decision as to whether or not a child is educable should be made only by competent persons who have at their disposal adequate information upon which to base intelligent judgments. The establishment of an arbitrary IQ standard below which children will be excluded from school can hardly be defended. The child's total pattern of strengths and weaknesses should be considered. A child may have strengths other than general intelligence which would offset the lower IQ and which might make it possible for him to profit from school experiences and not deter the progress of the total group.

For very slow-learning children, who must remain at home, there is the possibility of providing help in the home through a counselor or special teacher who visits the home and works with child and

parent. Parsons, as a result of a survey of 23 major school systems, reports progress in some schools in making this provision.[3]

CLASSIFICATION AND GROUPING OF SLOW-LEARNING CHILDREN

7.7 *The Classification of Slow-learning Children into Groups*

It has been traditional for many schools to group slow-learning children into rather rigid groups primarily on the basis of measures of general intelligence. For example, children with IQ's from 35 to 50 were placed in one category and provided a certain type of school experience; children with IQ's from 50 to 70–75 were placed in special classes; and children with IQ's from 70–75 to 85–90 were placed in still another group. Obviously, it was thought that homogeneity in learning ability was obtained by such procedures. Research by Cook and others shows that grouping on a single measure does not take into account the fact that there is wide variance among children in the various traits which make up the general measure. Grouping of this type does not accomplish what it is supposed to do. The overlapping of traits and abilities from group to group is still great. There is still need for considerable grouping within the group on the basis of specific traits, abilities, and needs. One of the significant trends in modern education in the future will be the steady movement away from the practice of categorizing slow-learning children, or any other type of children, on the basis of a single measure of general ability. See Sec. 4.2 for the research justifying this position.

7.8 *Grouping Slow-learning Children*

How slow-learning children are grouped will be determined by the philosophy of the individual school. Those schools whose programs and teaching are subject-centered and who place prime importance upon academic achievement will probably tend to segregate these children for all or part of their work, either in special classes or in slow-moving sections. It is possible that these children will be segregated for the academic subjects only and will participate with regular groups in the remainder of the activities.

Schools which have revised their philosophies and practices in keeping with research on the manner of pupils' growth and develop-

[3] Rosa F. Parsons. *A Study of Public School Facilities for Children of Less Than 50 I.Q.*, p. 1. San Diego, Calif.: Guidance Bureau, San Diego Public Schools, 1949.

ment, the different facets of pupil growth, rates of growth, and the need to provide an educational atmosphere in keeping with democratic principles will probably guide these children in regular groups of children where a philosophy of continuous growth for each individual child is practiced.

The present trend in guiding children, recognizing a wide range of abilities and needs, is to group the children homogeneously on the basis of social and physical development. This trend is gaining momentum. The needs, learning rates, and aptitudes will be determined and used as the basis for forming a number of flexible learning groups within the larger groups. The formation of a special class for slow learners does not eliminate the need for meeting a wide range of needs and abilities within the special class. The special-class teacher will need to do exactly what the regular-group teacher will need to do. Why bother to organize special classes when they do not represent what they are purported to represent? Why not preserve the normal grouping of children and take advantage of a natural setting which, if we believe in living democratically within the classroom, is the best way of inculcating within each child democratic principles of group living. Opportunities for leadership in a natural setting are provided for both the slow and the rapid learner. Even the slow learners will be found to excel their peers in some traits and assume roles of leadership. It is, indeed, surprising how much some of the so-called slow learners can accomplish, not only in specific skills and achievement but in over-all development as well. This does not mean that the needs of the superior child are to be neglected. It merely means that all children will have all of their aptitudes and needs developed in the type of social setting in which all will be privileged to live and work when they assume roles as adults in society.

The success of any educational program, either traditional or modern, must be predicated upon the fact that the teacher's load is such that he has time to study his pupils individually and to plan, guide, and teach them each according to his needs.

7.9 *Implementation in the Use of the Special Class*

The majority of schools using the special-class arrangement for slow-learning children agree that partial segregation is preferable

to total segregation. "The children should be included in the total school set-up, regularly participating in assembly programs, organized play, and other activities enjoyed by all children." [4]

Allen,[5] writing for the Department of Education of the State of Ohio, further emphasizes this need by stating: "Since they must live as adults in the community with the rest of us, efforts are now being made to find ways to help them adjust within the larger group while they are still children." To answer the need for growing up in as many normal growth situations as possible should be the objective of those schools sponsoring special classes for slow-learning children.

Children are quick to sense that there is a reason for setting groups of children apart. It is exceedingly easy for insidious connotations to be attached to such groups. Children who are members of special classes resent the insinuations sometimes made by other children. Perhaps the word special should not be used under any circumstances with children. If all grades or groups in the school could carry the teacher's name as a means of indentification, the chances of stigma being attached to the slow-learning groups might be lessened.

7.10 *Guiding Slow-learning Children into Heterogeneous, Ungraded Groups*

There is much to be said in favor of guiding slow-learning children into ungraded groups of a heterogeneous nature. The range of chronological ages in these groups usually extends from one to three years, as determined by the breadth of the group or unit. From a mental-hygiene point of view, no placement could be better because no stigma is attached. Moreover, no social setting can be devised which would facilitate all-round growth to a greater extent. No plan of grouping children lends itself better to the development of a philosophy built around the continuous-growth concept. Moreover, it can be said that no plan of grouping children lends itself better to the development of an integrated, common-learnings type of growth experience. The ungraded group lends itself well to the formation of

[4] Department of Education, State of New Jersey. *The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child.* School Bulletin 12, p. 15. Trenton: Department of Education, State of New Jersey. 1947.

[5] Amy A. Allen. *Let Us Teach Slow Learning Children*, p. 5. Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education. 1950.

small, informal ability or trait groups. Many educational systems are moving rapidly in this direction. This type of grouping should not be confused with ungraded groups specifically for slow learners.

WHAT AND HOW SHOULD WE TEACH SLOW-LEARNING CHILDREN

7.11 *The Approach as Related to Grouping of Slow-learning Children*

Whether a slow-learning child is kept in a regular group or is placed in a special group composed of slow-learning children, his growth needs are the same. This applies to the organization of the learning experiences provided, to the goals set up for the individual, and to the methods and techniques for bringing about the maximum development in each individual child.

7.12 *Trends in Curriculum Development as Related to Slow-learning Children*

Current practice reflects strongly the movement away from the subject-centered approach toward the child-centered approach in the development of school experiences for all types of children. Moreover, it indicates that we are interested in growth and not in the mere acquisition of isolated bits of experience on the part of children. Learning experiences are tied together in meaningful relationships around the interests of children. Guidance is recognized as a vital factor in effecting total growth of the child. All of these trends in curriculum development are valuable to all children in our schools, but especially to the slow-learning child, who has been strangled for so long by school experiences wholly beyond his grasp and learning pace. Kelley and Stevens [6] state that the curriculum for slow learners "should offer broad experiences to the pupil; that it be sufficiently flexible in scope to allow for complete pupil growth; and that it provide opportunity for development by the pupil for those processes which assist in critically evaluating his experiences." It is the responsibility of the school to plan and provide experiences for slow-

[6] Elizabeth M. Kelley and Harvey A. Stevens. "Special Education for the Mentally Handicapped." *The Education of Exceptional Children*, p. 249. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1950. Quoted by permission of the Society.

learning children in realistic terms. A functional, meaningful type of experience adjusted to the levels of aptitudes and rates of learning of these children and geared to the current needs of society seems best.

7.13 *Launching New Assignments or Activities for Slow-learning Children*

The teacher must make sure that he states clearly the goals and what is to be accomplished in each new activity. The use of examples should ensure a better and more thorough understanding on the part of the pupils. Finally, the teacher should test the pupils' understanding of the problem by having them describe the problem. Obviously, if they can describe the problem, they understand it. Perhaps questions from the pupils to the teacher would add additional clarification.

The teacher must explain new material in detail. He may have to read individual passages to the children and add explanatory remarks to make sure that they understand. Tasks assigned slow-learning pupils are more readily understood and mastered if broken up into short, simple units carefully presented and illustrated. Any new terms encountered should be printed on the blackboard. Textbook illustrations carry important points, and they should be called to the pupils' attention. The need of a detailed assignment for slow-learning pupils cannot be questioned. Work assignments which are geared to the capacities of the child and which are challenging to the pupil at all times are important.

7.14 *Adjustments to Additional Drill and Short Memory Spans for Slow-learning Children*

The slow-learning child, by virtue of his limited ability to grasp concepts readily, will need more repetitions to learn than the normal child. Drill activity should be so motivated that it will not become monotonous and listless. This will test the ingenuity of the teacher in varying his approaches to drill. All instruction, drill and otherwise, should be modified according to short memory spans, which are typical of the slow-learning child. It might be well to interrupt learning periods with periods of relaxation and recreation. The fatigue accompanying activity may thus be alleviated, and antagonism

toward an activity may be forestalled. All types of mental imagery possible to use with this type of child should be brought into use. Several approaches may have to be made before comprehension finally results. Incentives such as play, dramatization, and pageantry may stimulate action.

7.15 *Adjustments during Group Discussions for Slow-learning Children*

During class discussions, the teacher should exert extreme discretion in the choice of vocabulary in order to ask questions which the pupils will understand. It would be unwise for the teacher to go on to a question or situation until the previous one has been satisfactorily answered. A written outline used simultaneously with class discussions should facilitate comprehension. Frequent summaries of the important points of the discussion should be used.

A certain amount of leeway should be permitted in pupil discussions, drill activities, and reviews to allow slow-learning children an opportunity to explain to the class materials which they comprehend and are fully capable of presenting. Slow-learning children require more time in which to organize and speak their thoughts. Ample time should be given them. They should be encouraged to express themselves orally, and the teacher should give them every opportunity to do so.

7.16 *Building Learning Experiences around Interests for Slow-learning Children*

Interests already present in slow-learning children should be discovered and utilized in teaching. Interests provide a useful core around which to build growth experiences. The interests of the slow-learning child will undoubtedly be local in nature. As children move from one learning experience to another, the teacher may have opportunities to generate new interests which may prove beneficial in developing continuous experiences.

7.17 *Emphasis on Self-evaluation for Slow-learning Children*

Self-evaluation is a desirable trait for any child, and it should not be overlooked in providing guidance and education for slow-learning children. Each child should be able to see and feel that he is making

progress. When a slow-learning child has done an assignment well, he should be praised. Slow-learning children respond to praise just as all other children do. Likewise, the slow-learning child does not like to be blamed and soon becomes discouraged through repeated failures.

7.18 *Emphasis on Supervision and Study Habits for Slow-learning Children*

Since the typical slow learner has poor study habits and does not know how to approach a problem to solve it, much careful supervision is needed. The study habits and problem approaches of this type of child should be sharpened as much as possible. If the slow-learning child is given a fairly good set of tools with which to work, his accomplishments should be increased. He needs close supervision, particularly when a new assignment or activity has been launched, since his powers of self-direction are somewhat limited. He needs more than the usual amount of definite instruction on drill and on needed habits and skills in specific situations.

7.19 *Emphasis on Concreteness for Slow-learning Children*

The learning aptitudes of the slow-learning child will not permit him to handle abstractions to any considerable extent depending, of course, on his individual level of aptitude. The slow-learning child soon flounders when abstractions beyond his comprehension are used. However, he can understand concrete learning experiences. Any technique or teaching aid which will facilitate this type of learning should be used.

Auditory and visual aids including radio, television, sound movies, maps, charts, globes, and all sorts of concrete material bearing on the activity under way may prove worth while in facilitating the learning of slow learners.

The traditional curriculum for slow-learning children, even in the elementary school, has been an emphasis upon handwork or manual experiences. Even though there is, and should be, some expression of creativeness with their hands for slow-learning children, it should not receive major emphasis; it should serve as an adjunct to academic and social training. Many slow learners may approximate or even surpass normal children in their motor capacities. The mental-health

values of being able to assume roles of leadership in a peer group are significant.

The choice of objects to be made during the manual-activities periods may well be based on the pupils' interests and needs so far as practicable. The materials and how they are to be used in carrying out the project may be regarded as a challenge to the pupils' abilities. All manual activities should be progressive for each pupil. A pupil's satisfactory completion of an article of handwork should be regarded as the signal for him to move on to the next higher process or possibly to an entirely new activity.

As further evidence that the nonacademic program should not be wholly on handwork, Williams and Stevens [7] state:

> The nonacademic program should stress, according to the abilities of the individual child, the following types of work: (1) specific training in personal habits, safety habits, habits and techniques of courtesy, promptness and social skill; (2) training in the formations and skills essential in community participation, a minimum knowledge of the workings of local government, the use of community resources, homemaking and care of children, and the like; (3) experiences leading to appropriate cultural development. This includes participation in sports, music, games, handwork and other expressive and leisure activities.

7.20 *Need for Diagnostic and Remedial Procedures with Slow-learning Children*

The capacities and limitations of each slow learner must be known by the teacher. He should realize the impracticality of attempting to correct some defects fully or of ever having a pupil perform on a level of which he is wholly incapable.

There is great need for diagnostic and remedial procedures with slow learners. Deficiencies in learning are much more likely to happen with this group. Therefore, more emphasis should be placed upon diagnostic and remedial procedures in order that barriers, no matter how small, can be removed, if at all possible. Diagnostic tests, either standardized or teacher made, are valuable tools in working with slow-learning children.

[7] Harold M. Williams and Harvey A. Stevens. *A Public School Program for Retarded Children.* pp. 21–22. Madison, Wis.: Department of Public Instruction, Bureau for Handicapped Children. 1947.

7.21 *Application of the Principle of Readiness in Teaching Slow-learning Children*

It is a waste of the teacher's and the pupil's time to begin instruction before the child is mentally mature and emotionally ready for the experience. Sometimes the other extreme exists, in that the teacher delays teaching a skill or concept too long after the pupil is ready for it. Knowing when to begin to teach is almost as important as knowing what and how to teach. This is especially true with slow-learning children. We know enough now about child development to know that different learning experiences require different mental and emotional stages of development for the child to comprehend and really profit from them. Rather than to attempt to teach something which is impossible for a child to understand, this valuable time might well be used to carry on readiness activities or other activities for which the child has need and which he can comprehend. Readiness amounts to good psychological timing.

7.22 *Adjustments in the Essential Skills for Slow Learners*

Reading must be presented much more slowly and casually to slow learners than to those who learn rapidly. Work must always proceed on a level which can be comprehended. Much of the material may have to be prepared by the teacher around the pupils' centers of interest. Vocabulary must be introduced slowly and in keeping with the children's ability to absorb it. Much drill, broken into short periods on vocabulary and phonics, should become an integral part of the instruction. Formal reading experiences should not start with this group until they have sufficient mental maturity and readiness. They should be taught to read public signs and to read and follow directions.

Language work should proceed on a practical, functional basis. Correct usage can be acquired through actual usage more effectively than by a study of complex rules. Discussion or "talking" periods provide an excellent opportunity for the teacher to give the necessary guidance each child needs in the development of good oral expression.

More drill on letter forms in handwriting may be needed for the slow-learning child than for the superior child. It may even be wise

to continue manuscript writing even after the child leaves the elementary school because of legibility and ease of making letter forms. All children need to be taught to write their own names and at least express ideas in simple language, if possible. This tool is essential for them in filling out application blanks and other forms.

In the teaching of spelling, word drill should be repeated at frequent intervals with less material than usually presented to a normal group. The child should be shown the need of accurate spelling; it should be presented to him in meaningful situations.

More drill and repetitions given in short, frequent drill periods will be necessary for the fixing of the basic concepts and skills in arithmetic. The minimum essentials should be mastered, if possible, but it is unlikely that these children will be able to do much more. All teaching of number concepts should be extremely practical.

7.23 *Guiding the Slow Learner in One Skill*

Occasionally a pupil will be classified as a slow learner in one skill. The teacher should utilize every resource at his command to study this child's weakness and to develop a program in keeping with his needs. "Considerable care must be taken for finding his interests and through those interests build up his weakness. Material within the child's interest and ability must be provided in a setting conducive to learning in this area of special weakness." [8]

GUIDING THE SLOW LEARNER IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Most of the foregoing discussion applies, in principle at least, to high school as well as elementary students. Some points obviously pertain to the earlier years only:

1. All of the initial testing will have been done by the time the slow learner reaches high school. Those with limited learning abilities will have been discovered during the elementary years.
2. Very slow learners will never become a responsibility of the secondary school for, in most cases, they are custodial in nature.
3. Teaching of the fundamental skills will be primarily the respon-

[8] Staff of Wooldridge School. *Grouping, Marking and Reporting to Parents*, p. 19. Austin, Tex.: Wooldridge School, University of Texas. 1950.

sibility of the elementary school. The slow learning rates of these students will make it necessary for some of these experiences to be continued on the secondary level.

7.24 *Entrance of Slow Learners into the Secondary School*

With the strong present trend on continuous progress in the elementary schools, slow-learning pupils will enter junior high schools with a chronological age of twelve or thirteen and senior high school three years later. This means that pupils will enter high school with a wide variance of aptitudes, achievements, and needs. The secondary school must know these conditions as reflected by each individual pupil and guide them into experiences which will stimulate the greatest possible all-round growth.

7.25 *The Slow Learner in the Secondary School*

The secondary school which has a thorough understanding of its function in society will admit slow-learning pupils and will provide growth experiences for them which will best equip them to adjust and contribute to a democratic society. Traditionally, the secondary school has been college preparatory in purpose. For those pupils with superior learning aptitudes who plan to go to college, it is still the function of the secondary school to take care of their needs through a program geared to their learning levels and needs. The secondary school can take care of the slow learners and those with superior learning aptitude with equal ease if it plans and builds correctly.

The secondary school can provide a number of excellent adjustments in meeting the needs of the slow learner. Adjustments for slow learners do not mean a lowering of standards in the secondary school; the standard should be set according to the needs of each individual student. The standards for academic excellence should remain just as high as they have ever been for those who have scholastic aptitude. Moreover, honors classes and other techniques which will contribute to their maximum growth should be fully utilized. Our philosophy now is merely to develop to the fullest the learning aptitudes and all other capabilities found in each child. Society and the individual will profit if we utilize and develop all the potentials of all the children.

7.26 *Guidance for Slow Learners in the Secondary School*

Guidance for the slow learner in the elementary school is somewhat simplified in that a single teacher usually integrates all of the learning experiences of the child and often has the child under his guidance for several terms. Because of departmentalization in the secondary school, guidance at this level is more complex and at the same time even more needed than it is in the elementary school. Unless teachers know their pupils—their strengths, limitations, desires, and needs—they cannot adequately teach them what they should, on a level which the pupils can comprehend and in a manner which will be meaningful and stimulating. Obviously, guidance must serve as the core or integrating factor in making secondary school experiences meaningful. Not only should there be counselors and special guidance workers in the secondary school to guide slow-learning students, but each classroom teacher should understand the philosophy and meaning of guidance and how he can best use it in his particular subject or activity in the development of his students. The mortality rate among high school students is evidence that many schools are not meeting the needs of their students. Many drop-outs are slow learners. A functional guidance program should aid materially in prolonging the educational experiences of many slow learners to good advantage.

7.27 *Core Curricula for Slow Learners in the Secondary School*

Core programs are student-centered rather than subject-centered. They are organized because of the needs of the student and not for the perpetuation of a body of knowledge. Slow-learning students need growth experiences which have meaning to them and which are based on their needs.

Core programs have important guidance possibilities. Since they integrate the experiences of two or more courses, they not only provide opportunity for the development of meaningful relationships in the experiences taught but they also provide an enlarged block of time in which the teacher has opportunity to study individual pupils. Guidance takes place when teachers know their pupils. Through knowing them, the teacher is in a position to adjust his teaching to their needs. If the homeroom teacher handles the core

programs, the guidance function is developed still further by the increased length of time one particular teacher has a student under his guidance and direction.

A variation of this technique particularly adaptable to the junior high school is to have the home-room teacher do all of the teaching in the essential skills and permit the pupils to go for other classes and activities to individual teachers. Again, the longer period of time allotted to a single teacher has real guidance opportunities. Obviously, the core programs would be provided for all students, whereas the remaining experiences would be chosen through careful guidance to fit each student's individual pattern of needs.

7.28 *Differentiated Courses and Curricula for Slow Learners in the Secondary School*

Since the secondary school should try to meet the needs of all students, there will obviously be need for differentiated courses and curricula. One student may have aptitude and need for the college-preparatory curriculum, others for preparation for the business world, agriculture, technical programs, or one of many others. It would be folly to attempt to tailor the student to fit the course or curriculum; we must tailor the curriculum to fit the student. A superior student may need higher mathematics in his preparation to enter college. The slow-learning student would receive little or no benefit from such a course. His needs in mathematics may be better met through a course in practical mathematics. Courses and curricula should be selected by students with the help of their counselors on the basis of aptitude, interest, and need. Forcing pupils into programs on other bases will lead only to failure and frustration.

It should be remembered that groups or classes of pupils guided together on the basis of learning aptitude are not necessarily homogeneous on the basis of the various learning aptitudes. The teacher must still adjust the work to the various levels of aptitude present in the groups.

In summing up the academic needs of slow-learning pupils in the secondary school, Mones [9] recommends the following:

[9] Leon Mones. "What Programs for the Slow Learner?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals.* Vol. 33, No. 163 (May, 1949). pp. 54–55.

1. Drills in the simple fundamentals of calculation, expression, and communication, adjusted to simple, practical objectives, and, as much as possible, related to the common interests of the pupils.

2. The study of biography of the great and good so that pupils may identify themselves and find themselves as they seek to emulate objects of their hero worship.

3. Even science and mathematics—but studies in these areas should be studies of the practical concerns that relate to their lives.

4. Particularly the experiences of art and music offer possibilities of satisfaction and success. They can be made experiences of great education and personal satisfaction for these pupils.

7.29 *The Slow-learning Pupil and Vocational Education*

It was the traditional point of view that all slow-learning students should be directed into courses or curricula of a prevocational or vocational nature. This viewpoint is utterly absurd. Not all slow-learning students have the necessary aptitudes to acquire vocational skills. Some may have aptitude, interest, and needs for vocational training. If they do, they should be guided into it. Vocational training should be regarded as a possible area of experience for the slow-learning individual only if he has need and aptitude for it. The question arises: What are these people going to do in the world of work as adults? The answer lies in the fact that there are many areas of work in which an individual does not perform a skill but rather renders some type of personal service. Vocational programs should not be forced to admit students who would be misfits. Superior pupils should be able to enter vocational programs, also.

7.30 *The High School Diploma and the Slow Learner*

Just what is a high school diploma supposed to signify? Does it mean that the student is ready for college? Does it mean that a student has attended high school for the regular time and has grown and developed personally, socially, vocationally, and academically as much as was possible in the light of his potentialities? Of course, the traditional concept was that the diploma signified that the student was ready for college. Perhaps we are now ready for more

than one kind of diploma. Lindquist [10] evaluates the diploma situation as it now faces us as follows:

> Diplomas in the common schools will continue to be given by virtue of years attended, age attained, and courses taken, but they will be assumed to convey little or no further meaning. The common school period probably should be the same length for all pupils. No attempt should be made to bring the slow pupil up to standard by keeping him in school a few extra years. No attempt should be made to keep the bright pupil down to standard by accelerating him through school at an early age. If instruction is adapted to individual needs and capacities, the diploma should be considered little more than a certificate of attendance, and the level of achievement attained in the various areas should be determined through measurement procedures.

It would seem that the diploma is a rather insignificant instrument when it comes down to the job of telling what has happened to an individual as a result of going to high school. It would seem that emphasis upon the development of well-balanced personalities and wholesome ideals and attitudes toward other people and good government are values given by the high school which are difficult to evaluate in terms of a diploma. The traditional diploma signifies excellence in academic attainment; the modern diploma signifies progress in personal development.

7.31 *Guiding Slow Learners into Group Experiences with Regular Students*

The chief difference between slow learners and rapid learners is in their rate of learning potential in academic experiences. Over and above the academic experiences in the secondary school, there are countless opportunities for pupils of all levels of ability to participate together. Differentiation is not necessary in these areas. They include recreational activities, athletics, music, art, dramatics, and pageantry. The whole program of clubs may likewise be opened to all on an equal basis. Mones [11] summarizes participation in this area for slow learners as follows:

[10] E. F. Lindquist. *Educational Measurement*, p. 25. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1951.

[11] *Op. cit.*, p. 54.

When these people are accepted in secondary schools, the school clubs, the bands, the patrols, the clean-up squads, the lawn and ground squads, the cafeteria patrols, athletic teams, are all possible instrumentalities of their education. In these they can find educational outcomes in the way of developing traits, attitudes, purposes, and satisfactions that will give them a sense of integrated personality.

7.32 *Remedial Groups for Slow Learners in the Secondary School*

There will be need for remedial work with slow learners in high school, particularly in the skill subjects. Some schools employ special remedial teachers who meet with groups of pupils usually two or three periods each week. The small amount of time the pupil is segregated from his group is not enough to affect his social adjustment. The question arises, however, as to whether the regular teacher would be in a better position to offer the remedial help that would be needed, particularly if he were adjusting the work to the individual pupil's needs. The use of informal groups within the larger group would offer possibilities for the regular teacher to carry on remedial work with the natural grouping. The role of the remedial teacher would evolve itself into helping the teacher to select suitable techniques and materials in doing the remedial work. This approach to remedial work may tend to make the remedial work an integral part of the regular work done in the classroom. The term coaching, or coaching classes, as applied to individuals and groups needing help has been abandoned for the much more expressive term remedial.

7.33 *Grouping Slow Learners on the Basis of Sex in the Secondary School*

Some schools follow the practice of segregating, according to sex, slow learners from twelve to sixteen years old. It is obvious that this plan of grouping adolescents violates all sound principles so far as the development of socially competent people is concerned. It is completely unnatural in every respect. It is the responsibility of the school to provide growth opportunities leading to social competence of slow-learning students. Most of these individuals will marry and have families; thus, by placing them in separate groups according

to sex, a valuable opportunity to give them experiences in the development of group competencies is lost.

7.34 *Needed Teacher-Parent Cooperation*

Most parents have high ambitions for their children and are anxious for them to progress in school. Parents are entitled to know of the progress or lack of progress and the reasons behind it. Great care is needed in making this approach. Parents are especially sensitive to the slow progress of their children. As much objective evidence as possible should be used. The attitude and interest of the teacher toward the individual child will be an important determining factor in the development of an understanding parent. Parents should be helped as much as possible to realize the educational needs of their children who are slow learners.

SUGGESTED READINGS

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CHAPTER 8 *Guiding Children with Superior Learning Aptitudes*

8.1 *The Needs of Children with Superior Learning Aptitudes*

Educational literature frequently refers to school children with superior learning aptitudes as gifted. One can also find the term used to identify a child possessing a special talent or aptitude regardless of his learning aptitudes. To say the least, this practice is somewhat confusing. Would it not be better to identify those exceedingly capable pupils from an academic standpoint in our schools as those having superior learning aptitudes? The terminology seems much more descriptive, for what concerns us is their ability to think rapidly and effectively with ideas.

If our schools guide and teach each student according to his capacities and needs, then we can be assured that the full potentialities of the superior student will be developed. The development of all capacities of members of this group is exceedingly important to society, for it is from this group that our leaders emerge, particularly in the professions.

Students with superior capacities respond like most other children, except that they have the ability to grasp ideas and comprehend them rapidly and on a more advanced level. They adjust with equal ease in their personal and social adjustments. In fact, Terman's study with superior children over a period of years discloses that in character and personality tests and trait ratings, this group tends to excel control groups of corresponding age.[1] It is the responsibility of the

[1] Lewis M. Terman and Melita Oden. *The Gifted Child Grows Up.* Stanford: Stanford University Press. 1947.

school to provide an enriched program which will develop to the maximum all latent potentialities of this special group of students.

EVALUATING THE LEARNING APTITUDES OF SUPERIOR CHILDREN

8.2 *The Use of Objective Measuring Instruments*

The general intelligence test has been the principal instrument of measuring level of general intelligence, or general learning aptitude, since its development a number of years ago. These tests are available in both group and individual forms. For the most part, they provide only a single score, usually in terms of an IQ, making no attempt to provide scores on the various parts which make up the test. That they have value cannot be questioned.

Recent research has shown us, however, that each developing child has several different types of intelligence or learning aptitudes. The factorial approach has been applied, in several instances, in devising measuring instruments to determine the level of different learning aptitudes present in individuals. The Thurstones have identified and built tests [2] to measure a number of primary learning aptitudes. For example, for the range of children found in kindergarten through second grade, these tests measure and provide separate scores for the following five basic learning aptitudes: verbal meaning, quantitative, space, perceptual speed, and motor. They also provide a general ability quotient comparable to the IQ. In measuring the basic learning aptitudes of secondary school pupils they provide a separate score in six learning aptitudes: verbal meaning, word fluency, reasoning, memory, number, and space. Super [3] states in reference to the subtests that "although, in combination, they measure what is commonly called general intelligence, factorial studies have shown that they are relatively independent of each other and unitary in nature. Scores based on these subtests are therefore used as indices of special, or primary, mental abilities."

The factorial approach to the measurement of various learning aptitudes is entirely new; the Thurstones were the first to venture into this field of measurement. Even though the approach is still in its

[2] Thelma G. and L. L. Thurstone. Published by Science Research Associates, Chicago.

[3] Donald E. Super. *Appraising Vocational Fitness*, p. 106. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1949.

infancy, it is destined to have a powerful impact on the manner in which pupils with unusual learning capabilities are identified and provided with appropriate growth experiences.

The well-known psychological tests developed by the American Council on Education measure two separate learning aptitudes, the aptitude to think with quantitative symbols and the aptitude to think with linguistic symbols. A student may present a very high score in one trait and a mediocre score in the other, and may receive a gross score indicating over-all ability only slightly above average. Obviously, the scores on the various parts are of more value to the teacher and counselor because they identify specifically where the student's learning aptitudes lie.

It seems sensible to conclude that those persons charged with the responsibility of locating students having superior learning aptitudes should be concerned with all types of specific learning aptitudes in pupils.

The pupil with exceedingly high learning aptitude in only one area might be overlooked if only a general measure of learning aptitudes were considered. A single total score derived from a test of general intelligence or general school aptitude would have greater value as a predictive measure if all the subtest scores were uniformly high than if there was variation among the scores. It should be the responsibility of the school to identify all unusual learning aptitudes found in children and to provide suitable experiences to develop these capabilities to the fullest.

8.3 *Teachers' Judgments and Achievement of Pupils*

Good school marks indicate high levels of learning aptitudes generally, but not always. Teachers are often influenced in giving high marks to pupils by reasons other than scholastic attainment. The child's attitude toward the teacher and school, his willingness to cooperate at all times, and his willingness to apply himself to the best of his ability sometimes influence the teacher. Even in the same school, one frequently finds a wide divergence of opinions on the bases for giving marks. Teachers' judgments of superior learning aptitudes are sometimes faulty, also. "Over-aged pupils, doing excellent work with children chronologically younger, are sometimes

erroneously judged bright by teachers."[4] Judging the learning potentials of school children is not an easy task.

8.4 *The Use of Various Evidences in Judging Superior Learning Aptitudes*

The sensible approach in judging the presence of superior learning aptitudes in school children is to use all evidences available—test scores of all types and particularly psychological tests measuring learning aptitudes, evaluations of school progress and achievement, teachers' judgment, and whatever other pertinent evidence is available. Obviously, it is the school's responsibility to identify, measure, and develop superior learning aptitudes in all the children.

ADJUSTMENTS FOR CHILDREN HAVING SUPERIOR LEARNING APTITUDES

8.5 *The Responsibility of the School to Children with Superior Learning Aptitudes*

All schools have children with superior learning aptitudes of some type. If the classification of children having superior learning aptitudes is limited to only those children presenting a high score or IQ on a general test, then of course the number of children will be scaled down considerably. Progressive thought in modern education is concerned with unusual learning aptitude whether it is identified as a special or single type or general. The child with superior ability to think with numbers and average ability to think with words is entitled to every opportunity for an enriched experience in developing to the fullest his unusual ability to think with numbers. The various provisions for meeting the needs of superior students follow.

8.6 *Special Classes and Groupings for Children with Superior Learning Aptitudes*

A few of the larger schools have set up special schools and classes in which superior students are segregated either full or part time.

[4] Merle R. Sumption, Dorothy Norris, and Lewis M. Terman. "Special Education for the Gifted Child." *The Education of Exceptional Children*, p. 263. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1950. Quoted by permission of the Society.

Sumption, Norris, and Terman [5] state: "In cities of a hundred thousand or over it is possible to establish special classes for the gifted of sufficient size at each grade or age level." The majority of schools will have to look for some other means of meeting the needs of superior children, since the typical school in the United States is small.

Schools which attempt to group pupils homogeneously in special classes on the basis of IQ do so on the hypothesis that children do not vary to any great extent in the various traits or abilities found within the individual student. Research tells us that if pupils are grouped on the bases of general intelligence, achievement-test scores, teachers' judgments, and marks, there is still a wide range of abilities or traits among the individuals within the group. Lindquist [6] summarized the research of several persons and "found grade levels to vary substantially as much as age levels in mental age." Cook experimented with variability when students were grouped on the basis of achievement-test scores in reading and arithmetic. When students were grouped in X, Y, and Z sections, he found a reduction of about 20 per cent in reading and arithmetic variability between the students in the X and Z groups. In other words, there was an overlapping between the extreme groups of 80 per cent.[7] Researches such as those cited cannot be ignored in the classification of students, even of children with superior learning aptitudes, into special classes or groups, particularly on the elementary level. The question might well be asked: Why group children on the basis of general intelligence and/or achievement-test scores when the members of the supposedly homogeneous group still present a wide range of variability so far as traits or abilities within individuals are concerned? Why not leave all children in a normal grouping and make provisions for all levels of learning aptitudes by grouping according to a single trait or ability within the group? Seegers [8] summarizes the task of teaching the superior child as providing for all the needs of the child—to challenge the bright child, to extend his interests, to stimulate the use of

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 265.

[6] E. F. Lindquist. *Educational Measurement*, p. 10. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education. 1951.

[7] Walter W. Cook. "Individual Differences and Curriculum Practice." *The Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 39, No. 3 (March, 1948), p. 143.

[8] J. Conrad Seegers. "Teaching Bright Children." *Elementary School Journal*. Vol. 49, Nos. 9–10 (May–June, 1949), p. 512.

superior ability, all without damaging general development. The school should see to it that social development is fostered in a reasonably normal environment.

There are some cautions which should be noted by those schools which follow the practice of grouping superior students in fast-moving sections or in major work classes within a regular school. Almost without exception, educators agree that students with superior learning aptitudes should not be totally segregated from the normal school population. Major work classes operating as an integral part of a regular school, whether as classes or as centers, would at least permit superior pupils to be grouped for activities of an academic nature while permitting participation with regular pupils in music, physical education, clubs, home-room activities, and other group experiences of this type. This arrangement will at least provide some participation in normal groups for superior learners. Total segregation of superior learners for all their school experiences would deny them the opportunity to develop interpersonal competencies with all types of pupils, which is the real basis for democratic living. Specialization of the interests of students having superior learning aptitudes is certainly not to be discouraged, yet overspecialization without careful guidance can become a dangerous trait with any child. Brown [9] feels that

> . . . keeping these children an integral part of the school is the factor most important in affecting their future personal happiness. They have to live in a world of mixed people—superior, normal, inferior, good, bad and indifferent—and they have every right, and more need, to be prepared for that than for calculating the curve of a parabola.

No teacher or administrator questions the need of an enriched curriculum for students having superior school aptitudes. Everything should be done to develop their capacities and aptitudes to the fullest possible extent. The question arises as to where in the school system this can best be done. Educational thinking seems to favor the grouping of children in natural groups representing a wide range of abilities with provisions for variations in aptitude and needs being made within the groups. This viewpoint conforms with modern trends in

[9] Marion V. Brown. "Teaching an Intellectually Gifted Group." *Elementary School Journal.* Vol. 49, No. 7 (March, 1949), p. 384.

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curriculum development which emphasize a type of learning experience geared to the structure of society and in keeping with the child's present aptitudes and needs. Obviously, democratic attitudes are best developed through democratic practices in school.

8.7 *Normal Class Groupings for Children with Superior Learning Aptitudes*

If children with superior learning aptitudes are grouped in normal groups or classes, every attempt should be made to provide growth experiences to meet their unique levels of aptitude and to challenge and stimulate them to the fullest possible all-round growth. Those who advocate special classes for the superior child usually do so on the basis that the regular classroom teacher teaches to the average or below-average child and permits the superior child to drift along unchallenged and undeveloped. Such a condition need not exist. It is just as easy for the regular classroom teacher to provide growth experiences for superior children in keeping with their needs as it is for him to provide meaningful learning experiences for average or below-average children. If a teacher presents curricular experiences on a single grade level and expects all children to profit equally, it is unlikely that the needs of any particular group of children, or even the needs of individual children, will be met.

ENRICHMENT TECHNIQUES

8.8 *Types of Enrichment Techniques for Children with Superior Learning Aptitudes*

There are two types of enriching experience into which children with superior learning aptitudes may be guided. Acceleration of superior children represents a vertical type of enrichment; enrichment for the superior student who remains with his normal group is known as horizontal enrichment. These approaches will be discussed separately.

VERTICAL ENRICHMENT OR ACCELERATION

8.9 *Vertical Enrichment in the Elementary School*

The rapid movement of children through the elementary school is generally looked upon with disfavor in modern school practice.

Vertical enrichment means that the child is being challenged by going more deeply into a subject or area of experience. Depth of experience is attained by a rapid forward movement of the child.

It is obvious from every angle that acceleration is not the answer but merely a temporary solution to the problem of providing meaningful and challenging learning experiences for the child. The use of ungraded groups in the elementary school should modify acceleration practices, since acceleration is usually practiced with the graded system. If a child is summarily placed in an advanced grade, the experience may be traumatic and have serious consequences. Not only does the child have to cope with the disadvantage of finding himself in a new social setting, among children somewhat older than he is, but there is also the danger that there may be serious gaps in his school experiences. In the ungraded group, where the social setting is broader in that it includes children having a variation in level of social development, the child, if the need seems justified, can move to some degree faster than the average. He may have to remain in an ungraded group for only two and one-half years, while the normal child remains three years. The ungraded group has great possibilities for moderate acceleration for superior children without the usual sudden adjustments which come by "skipping," or rapid acceleration. This plan has worth-while possibilities from the standpoint of the mental health of the superior child.

Most authorities agree that marked acceleration of superior learners in the elementary school is not desirable. Witty [10] states: "Several carefully made studies show that a moderate amount of acceleration is not usually attended by undesirable effects upon the gifted pupil. However, grade skipping is only a temporary expedient and at best a partial solution to a complex problem. For the majority of gifted pupils, a moderate amount of grade skipping seems justifiable." Martens [11] further states that "children who are exceptionally well developed physically, mentally and socially find satisfaction in working with others who are older than they by 1 or 2 years; but acceleration beyond this point is ordinarily considered inadvisable

[10] Paul Witty. "Let's Not Forget the Gifted Child." *Nation's Schools.* Vol. 45, No. 5 (May, 1950), p. 33.

[11] Elise H. Martens. *Curriculum Adjustments for Gifted Children,* p. 9. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Bulletin No. 1. 1946.

for most children because of the complications of social maladjustment that may arise." The three-year research study carried on in the Wooldridge School, Austin, Tex., makes no provision for the rapid advancement of superior learners; through a program of continuous grouping and enrichment, the needs of this group are met.[12]

The use of individualized materials aids in the rapid movement of superior children through the essentials of a subject or learning experience. Obviously, those children who learn rapidly will move much faster through individualized materials than average or below-average children. It is likewise true that the child presses forward into deeper and more advanced aspects of the learning situation at a rate commensurate with his own abilities. Since a teaching method which principally uses individual materials is criticized by many as being subject-centered and one in which the child misses the dynamics of the social and personality impacts of other children in a group situation, this plan can hardly be accepted for use without regard for the child's learning aptitude.

8.10 *Vertical Enrichment in the Secondary School*

The need for vertical enrichment or acceleration may be more evident in the secondary school than in the elementary school. Moreover, the practice may be used with less danger to wholesome social and personality development of the superior student. Through guidance, pupils are led into learning experiences best suited to their educational and vocational goals and levels of learning aptitude.

There may be real reasons why a pupil should advance more rapidly through the secondary school and complete his work ahead of other pupils of his own age. When it is evident that it will be necessary for the pupil to enter some vocation at an earlier age than normal or when a pupil has selected a profession, with the help of his counselor, which takes an extended period of professional preparation, then vertical enrichment would seem to be justified.

Since the secondary school is a departmentalized school, for the most part, the usual method of facilitating acceleration is to add subjects. There is also the possibility of having exceptional students skip the elementary phases of a subject in the secondary school.

[12] Staff of the Wooldridge School. *Grouping, Marking and Reporting to Parents.* Austin, Tex.: Wooldridge School, University of Texas. 1950.

Achievement tests may be used to determine the subject matter which should be skipped. An example of this adjustment is the case of a student having been taught a foreign language at home, in which case he can enter an advanced course in that language. The local school must determine whether or not credit should be given for the work skipped.

The use of individualized materials on the secondary level provides one means of permitting pupils to move faster than normal through a given course. There are no aspects of the course omitted, as the student does all of the work but at a rate suitable to his needs and abilities. When a student completes a course by this method he should be given credit for it and should be permitted to move immediately into another.

It must be remembered that the use of individualized materials provides for the growth of the student only in a skill or in subject content. The values which come through group discussions and participation in a regular class are wholly lacking. Acceleration by means of this technique may be limited to those students whose need for acceleration is urgent and cannot be gained in normal group situations.

HORIZONTAL ENRICHMENT

8.11 *Horizontal Enrichment in the Elementary School*

An approach to meeting the growth needs of superior children, which seems better than vertical enrichment in the light of modern educational thought, is that of providing enriching experiences within the normal group or grade. The teacher of a regular class or group of pupils should assume the responsibility of providing meaningful learning experiences for all levels of learning aptitude which he finds among pupils in his group. None should be overlooked. To fail to acknowledge and develop those children possessing unusual capacities is a serious error. If the teacher regards each individual pupil as a separate challenge and does everything in his power to provide and guide pupils with superior learning capacities into learning situations commensurate with their needs, it can be said that he understands the concepts of child development and the school's responsibility in it. Formation of a number of flexible ability, trait,

or interest groups within the regular classroom is one of the most effective ways in which the teacher can gear learning and enriching activities to pupils with unusual ability.

As the teacher guides and teaches children with superior learning aptitudes, there are several techniques which he can use to facilitate their growth and development. These are applicable either in the regular classroom or in the special class. The following are some of the more important techniques:

1. *Increase of the number of applications of the principle learned.* Horizontal enrichment may be accomplished by adding new learning experiences of the same general level of difficulty and dealing with the same phase of the work already being done. Almost any subject allows for an unlimited number of applications of the principle studied. This is especially true with the content subjects, in which it is possible to approach a topic from many different angles. This method is particularly valuable for enrichment in appreciation experiences. Tool subjects do not, as a rule, lend themselves so well to this method; once a principle is learned, additional applications amount to drill, which is not so necessary for able students. This approach to enrichment is likewise applicable to teaching in the secondary school.

2. *Development of generalizations.* Children with high levels of school aptitude will be more able to develop and apply generalizations. The ability to generalize facilitates ready adjustment to varied situations, and the most able students should be provided meaningful experiences in developing and applying this technique. The teacher must play a prominent role in developing this trait by directing the thinking of students toward the generalization through questioning. This procedure should, in time, enable the student to generalize by himself without the help of the teacher. It is particularly valuable in the content subjects. This approach is equally applicable to the secondary school and the elementary school.

3. *Development of creative expression.* There is a degree of creativeness in all individuals regardless of intellectual level, but it is only right to conclude that those with the highest levels of school aptitude will be able to create on levels commensurate with their

intellectual levels. This type of enrichment is applicable to almost every experience available in the school. It is displayed by the student who fashions something for himself; perhaps he builds a piece of furniture in the shop or creates a poem or a story. Every opportunity should be extended to all students and especially to the abler students in putting things they have experienced into new patterns and relationships.

8.12 *Enrichment Techniques in Skill Subjects*

Obviously, pupils need drill and repetition in the acquisition of a skill. The amount of drill needed will vary from pupil to pupil. Those children having superior learning aptitude will require fewer repetitions than children with average or below-average learning rates. For the superior child to continue to repeat drill experiences after he has learned what is needed is a waste of his time. He will probably give his attention to other activities, some of which may not be in keeping with good group conduct. Paul Witty states that by testing pupils prior to instruction and by offering individual guidance, the teacher can make sure that gifted pupils will not waste time by needless repetition on skills they have already mastered.[13] The utilization of the technique of dividing the pupils into ability or need groups on the basis of skills may prove to be an effective way for the teacher to adjust the amount and kind of drill to the needs of individual students. This approach would eliminate the practice of dismissing superior pupils from drill periods after they have demonstrated that they have acquired the skill.

Since the process of reading is that of extracting meanings from printed symbols and not manipulation of mechanics, emphasis on mechanics should be avoided with superior pupils. Mechanics are important as a means to an end but should never be regarded as an entity in themselves. Wide and rich reading experiences with emphasis upon silent reading seem to be the best way to build vocabulary; in the final analysis, vocabulary cannot be taught but comes through the wide use of the language skills.

Less repetition of drill materials in arithmetic to ensure permanency of learning is required for these children than for those who learn more slowly. It would be a waste of time for the child with

[13] Witty, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

superior school aptitude to continue with drill activities after satisfactory performance has been demonstrated. It would be far better for the child to participate in enrichment activities on the same general level. The study of mathematics or the working of puzzles and problems of a more difficult nature would serve as suitable enrichment activities.

A minimum of routine methods should be used in spelling. The superior child will need a greater vocabulary than the slow-learning child and should have, therefore, wider experiences which are purposeful and have meaning. Standards should be higher than for the slow-learning student.

Drill material in handwriting should be applicable to the individual student's particular needs. If a child feels the need for remedial work on letter forms, the drill will have meaning for him.

8.13 *Horizontal Enrichment in the Secondary School*

For secondary school students who plan to stay in school the normal number of years and who are in need of enriching experiences, there are many adjustments which can be made not only in the way of special schools and classes but also within the structure of all classes.

8.14 *Honor Classes and Honor Schools*

Honor classes and honor schools for students who show outstanding ability in some field are organized in some schools. Usually a student attends one or more honor classes and the remainder of the time participates with normal groups. The term honor school usually refers to the organization of all honor classes within a high school, cutting across departmental lines and operating with its own faculty. There are several versions and interpretations pertaining to these provisions and there seemingly is no clear-cut pattern followed by schools in general.[14]

8.15 *Special Schools for Pupils With Special Needs*

Some of the larger schools have developed special high schools for pupils whose exceptional abilities and interests in certain fields

[14] Research Division, National Education Association. *High School Methods with Superior Students.* Vol. 19, No. 4 (September, 1941), p. 176.

deserve the opportunity for enrichment and special training. As an example, New York City has special high schools for art, music, science, technical training, textiles, commerce, and vocations.[15]

8.16 *Parallel Curricula*

The practice of developing parallel curricula in the secondary schools to meet the needs and interests of students is necessary. In the senior high schools of Detroit, each pupil is placed in one of several curricula. The comprehensive high schools provide four such curricula—general, college preparatory, engineering preparatory, and technical. The technical high school offers twelve different programs of study. These curricula provide for various types and degrees of learning aptitudes—scholastic, mechanical, artistic, and business.[16] The intelligent guidance of students into an appropriate curriculum is one of the major responsibilities of the secondary school.

8.17 *Parallel Courses*

Similar to the organization of parallel curricula but much less extensive is the possibility of organizing parallel courses designed to meet the needs and interests of various groups of pupils. The pupil carries one or two such courses and the remainder of his work is carried in the regular curriculum. Parallel courses of this type are usually confined to the required courses.

8.18 *Enrichment through Individualized Materials and Differentiated Assignments*

Pupils working on individualized materials may be assigned extra projects above the minimum required. Certain techniques embodying the principle of differentiated assignments, in which each child accepts a contract to work out, afford opportunity for the inclusion of enriching activities for the more capable students. It should be kept in mind, however, that these plans, in general, have certain limitations in that the approach is very much subject-centered. See Secs. 8.9 and 8.10 for additional information on the use of individualized materials.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 177.
[16] *Ibid.*, p. 173.

8.19 *Enrichment through Supervised Correspondence Study*

Special courses may now be offered students through the plan known as supervised correspondence study. Under this provision, the lessons are received from the servicing school, usually a university, and presented to the student under the direction of a local supervisor. All papers and tests are corrected by the correspondence instructor. Time for the student to prepare his material is scheduled like any regular class. Superior students needing enrichment which cannot be taught locally may now have their needs met through this plan. The chief criticism leveled at this technique is that it is somewhat subject-centered; there is no personal contact between teacher and pupil. Obviously, schools which are so small that they cannot provide certain courses will have the greatest need for this plan of enrichment.

8.20 *Guiding Pupils into Additional Subjects for Enrichment Purposes*

Capable students may want to carry additional subjects primarily for their enriching values. Such students may or may not want to enter college upon completion of high school in the normal length of time. The excess credits earned may eventually be applied toward advanced standing.

8.21 *Gaining Advanced Standing through Additional Courses*

Capable students may be permitted to carry additional subjects which mean extra credits if they remain in school the normal time. In some instances, excess credits earned may be applied toward advanced standing in college. This plan is especially acceptable if the child is underage and should remain in the high school environment for a longer period of time before entering college. Advanced standing is often gained in the languages, English, and mathematics.

8.22 *Enrichment Techniques within Regular Classrooms in the Secondary School*

The basic enrichment techniques discussed in Sec. 8.11, an increase in the number of applications of a principle learned, the development of generalizations, and the development of creative

expression, are all applicable to teaching the pupil with superior learning aptitudes in the secondary school. In addition, it can be said that provision should be made for greater freedom for pupils with superior capacities within each individual course. Teachers should deliberately teach the superior pupil a sufficient amount of time to keep him working on the level commensurate with his capacities. At no time should the performance of the superior student be compared to that of slower students. The student's performance should be checked against his own potentialities. Questions asked superior students should be adjusted to their intellectual levels.

Responsibilities in connection with the class, such as assisting the teacher in assembling and handling apparatus and doing minor pieces of research, have value for the capable student. Superior students may be assigned demonstrations a few days in advance; in case this is practiced, a high standard of performance should be demanded at all times.

OTHER ADJUSTMENTS FOR SUPERIOR STUDENTS

8.23 *Guiding Superior Students into Enrichment Experiences outside the Classroom*

Teachers and counselors who are alert to the problem of providing enrichment experiences for superior boys and girls will examine opportunities existing outside the classroom as well as those possibilities from within. Pupils with unusual capabilities should be encouraged to participate in all types of useful experiences outside of the regular curriculum. These experiences may be found within the school as out-of-class experiences or outside the school as out-of-school experiences. Full use should be made of clubs or courses which emphasize music, art, creative writing, dramatics, or other enriching activities. Such activities not only develop already existing talents but also serve excellently as leisure-time activities. The development of hobbies in keeping with pupils' interests and talents should be encouraged. Experiences which stimulate social and personality growth should be planned as an integral part of the program of superior children.

As a means of meeting the needs of superior children with special talents, a number of schools have established Saturday or after-

school art classes for those with artistic aptitude. These groups may include children of different chronological ages and may include both elementary and secondary pupils, since the work must be largely individualized. The public art museum and other civic agencies often cooperate in establishing such classes.

Talented pupils should be encouraged to take out-of-school lessons in music, art, dramatics, or other experiences which may afford intellectual growth. Enrichment through such out-of-school experiences may be sufficient to provide needed enrichment, thereby permitting children to remain in their socially accepted groups in regular grades.

8.24 *Cooperation of School and Parents of Superior Students*

Conferences should be held between faculty members who plan and direct the learning experiences of superior children and the parents of such children. The parents should be informed of the capabilities of their children and of the need of cooperation between home and school in providing the greatest stimulation and growth possible. The parents may be in a position to provide many worthwhile enriching experiences in the home or to take advantage of others available in the community. A noncooperative parent can do much to nullify the work of the school.

8.25 *Avoidance of Exploitation of Superior Students*

Never should the teacher be guilty of exploiting the time and ability of the superior pupil for school recognition or for the benefit of teachers and other personnel. Time over and above what is taken to prepare schoolwork of the superior pupil should not be spent serving as messenger boy for the teacher and administration.

8.26 *Provisions for the One-talent Pupil*

Provisions for children with normal school aptitudes and in addition some outstanding talent should be much the same as those for other capable children. Ample opportunity for the development of the special talent should be offered either through experiences in the regular curriculum or through out-of-class or out-of-school experiences.

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CHAPTER 9 *The Guidance of Students with Special Physical Needs*

HELPING THE PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED

9.1 *A Viewpoint on the Student with a Physical Handicap*

A student with a physical handicap is basically like any normal student, except for his physical deviation. He has the same desires, interests, ambitions, and potentialities as other students and should be permitted to grow and develop as normally as possible. He should be regarded by adults and other students as a normal person with a special problem. This type of student is entitled to, and should be given, special consideration and guidance pertaining to the handicap and its implications. Special educational opportunities, physical provisions, and guidance services should always be regarded as an adjunct to the regular opportunities and services provided in the school. In other words, the focus of attention should be on the development of the total individual rather than on the handicap. "The handicapped child should be made to feel that society expects him to fit himself for life's responsibilities just as it expects the normal child to do."[1] It is important to remember that the needs of the handicapped are not essentially different from the needs of normal pupils, except that special adjustments and services are needed for them to realize as satisfying a life as possible.

[1] Los Angeles City Schools. *Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children. The Child with Impaired Vision.* School Publication 391, p. 9. Los Angeles: Los Angeles City Schools. 1943.

9.2 *The Importance of Attitudes toward the Physically Handicapped*

Kindness and sympathetic understanding of the pupil with a handicap are always appropriate. These are attitudes to which even the normal pupil is entitled. To go beyond these with attitudes of pity and overprotection and a feeling that the individual is helpless does the handicapped person more harm than good. Becht [2] states that "a primary need in the counseling and placement of the handicapped is not the need of the handicapped, but the need of those persons who work and play and live with them." Too many persons who live and work with handicapped pupils accent the handicap. The child tends to develop a feeling of self-pity and helplessness. Under this type of guidance and direction, it is only natural for him to develop unhealthy attitudes. "Handicapped persons need understanding, security, and a chance to make their way in life—just as do the rest of us." [3] It is the responsibility of parents, teachers, counselors, and others who guide and direct handicapped students to treat them as normal human beings and to help them develop confidence in themselves and a desire to move forward and live normal lives as nearly as they can. Accent on normalcy is important for these individuals.

9.3 *Guidance for the Physically Handicapped*

Because the handicapped person has a special problem in addition to the problems faced by the normal pupil, the guidance services of the school must be alert to the challenge of guiding the development of well-adjusted individuals. Even though the handicapped pupil has special problems to solve in the form of physical, social, and emotional adjustments, as many as possible of the adjustments should be made in normal situations, with normal groups, and with pupils following normal procedures. Some important objectives of guidance for handicapped persons follow:

1. *Helping the individual to understand himself and to develop a healthy mental attitude toward his handicap.* Through counseling, teachers and other personnel should make every attempt to help

[2] Helen M. Becht. "Must a Handicap Be a Liability?" *Occupations.* Vol. 27, No. 3 (December, 1948), p. 177.

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 179–180.

the student accept his handicap with a healthy attitude. They may need, likewise, to help him realize as many as possible of the goals and objectives taken for granted by other students. He must be helped to accept his handicap and to work with it and to develop independence rather than be permitted to develop patterns of frustration which may result in the development of patterns of dependence upon others, defeatism, and an unhealthy outlook toward life. Guidance which is based upon realism and emphasizes mental hygiene is a necessity for handicapped persons.

2. *Guiding those who work and live with handicapped students to help them develop good mental-health habits.* This is basic in working with handicapped pupils. Overprotective parents, acting in good faith, can undo all of the good counseling done in school unless they are given guidance and direction in how to work with their child. The same can be true of other persons coming in contact with the pupil. The physically handicapped elicits sympathy and overprotection which, unless tempered with understanding and common sense, can create unhealthy mental attitudes within the child.

3. *Helping the handicapped person understand his environment in order to facilitate better adjustment to it in adult life.* Not only must the handicapped student understand himself in relation to his handicap, but he should also thoroughly understand his environment and what it has to offer as a part of his educational experience. Not only should this information be of great help to the student in making a satisfactory vocational adjustment, but it should also help him in making satisfactory personal and social adjustments to community life which, because of his handicap, may vary somewhat from those made by normal pupils. The extent of the adjustment will depend, of course, upon the degree and nature of the handicap. Adjustments to modes of living are inevitable for this type of student.

4. *Helping the handicapped student plan vocational goals which are in keeping with his aptitudes and special physical limitations and which will bring satisfactions and independence.* This is an area of guidance requiring careful planning and counseling. The pupil's special handicap, obviously, must occupy an important place in the planning of vocational goals not only from the standpoint of

physical limitations but also from the standpoint of the possible impact it will have on the mental health of the handicapped person.

Vocational adjustment should include the determination of the type of activity for which he is physically and mentally fitted, guidance into a suitable field, training and placement. Each form of defect as well as its degree of seriousness requires a vocational adjustment peculiar to the need.[4]

5. *The handicapped pupil is in need of special guidance services.* The presence of a physical handicap almost always complicates the adjustive problems of the student. This means that special guidance services are needed to deal with the increased complexity. The diagnosis of the physical deviation itself may entail additional specialists. Perhaps certain physical facilities and provisions of a corrective or remedial nature are needed. The student may need special curricular adjustments or special remedial work in regular school subjects. Personal frustrations and asocial patterns of behavior may develop because of the handicap. The school should be prepared to provide as many of the special guidance services as possible or to refer the pupil to appropriate agencies. Many handicapped persons need the help of specially trained personnel. For untrained personnel to attempt to handle special problems would amount to malpractice and perhaps permanent damage to the pupil. Many of the special guidance services needed for the physically handicapped are available only in the larger schools.

6. *Working with agencies within the community.* School personnel assigned the responsibility of directing the growth experiences of physically handicapped students should seek the help of whatever agencies—public or private—are found in the community which can help. One of the principal sources of help may be the boards of vocational rehabilitation, which are operated on a state level under the supervision of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Federal Security Agency. This agency is in a position to provide certain guidance services, financial support, and other means of helping the physically handicapped. Contact should be maintained with them at all times.

[4] Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow. *Mental Hygiene* (2d ed.), p. 178. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1951.

9.4 *The School's Responsibility to the Physically Handicapped Pupil*

Whether a school is large or small, many adjustments can be made to facilitate the education and growth of physically handicapped persons. The facilities, equipment, and special personnel available in the larger schools will be much more in abundance than those found in the smaller schools, but this does not mean that the smaller schools are helpless. On the contrary, many excellent adjustments can be effected. For the extreme cases which cannot be handled in the regular school program, the smaller schools will have to rely upon state or private institutions or other means to provide the needed adjustments, which might include home or hospital instruction.

Only in rare cases should physically atypical individuals be excluded from school. Every child, regardless of physical status, has the right to expect the school to do something for him. The school, as a social agency, should exhaust every possible means to make provisions for physically atypical persons. Only when the school cannot make needed provisions, or the presence of the individual would violate the progress of others in the group, should exclusion be practiced. Even then, the services of the school should be taken to where the individual is located if they will contribute to his education and development.

9.5 *Guiding Physically Handicapped Pupils into Special Groups*

Many types of physically handicapped may be guided advantageously into special groups. The group may provide special help through specially trained personnel or through the use of special equipment. The group may provide corrective or therapeutic help for the handicap itself. Even though the individual may be removed full time, part time, or on a temporary basis from his normal group, depending, of course, upon the nature and severity of his handicap, the gains to the individual pupil which come to him through the special adjustment should be greater than if the pupil were to remain with his regular group. This criterion should be present in each case before a pupil is removed from his regular class grouping.

It is axiomatic that a physically handicapped person should be separated from his normal grouping only for the length of time that

it is to his advantage. Entrance to and departure from special facilities should be controlled by the needs of the individual student. There should be no arbitrary rules for entering or leaving. The handicapped person should be guided at all times into experiences which will bring about the greatest all-round growth possible. No handicapped pupil should ever be placed in a special facility until his home and school life have been considered as well as his physical condition. Assignment should be made only after careful consideration of his physical, social, psychological, and emotional status.

9.6 *Special Classes and Schools for the Physically Handicapped*

The special facilities available in many school systems for the education and treatment of physically handicapped pupils have contributed immeasurably to the development of these individuals into self-sufficient and worth-while citizens. Recommendations for placement in a special class or school for remedial or therapeutic treatment should be based upon the needs of the individual case as determined by the best scientific information available.

Whenever possible, physically handicapped individuals placed in special schools or classes should be returned to regular classes as soon as they have improved enough to function in a normal group again. Sometimes the transition will be gradual, with the pupil spending part of his time in regular classes and part in special schools or classes.

1. *Special classes.* The combination of special classes and regular classroom has gained wide recognition. Under this arrangement, the handicapped person attends as many classes and activities with normal children as possible, but operates under a modified schedule which permits instruction or treatment in the special class according to his needs. This arrangement is wholly democratic and gives the handicapped person experiences in living and growing in normal groups. The mental-health values of this program are significant.

2. *Special schools.* There are two types of special schools which should be mentioned. Some cities have special schools which house only one type of physically handicapped persons, while other cities have one special school which takes care of all or almost all types of physically atypical persons. The number of physically atypical

pupils found in a given school will determine to a large measure, the preferable arrangement. It would be unwise to minimize the extreme value of special buildings, equipment, and personnel which a larger city can provide. The chief criticism which has been leveled at the special school is that the social situation created by total segregation is not normal. Since democratic living means that each person must accept responsibility, the opportunity should be given each child, handicapped or otherwise, to grow up in an environment as nearly normal as possible. Those cities operating special segregated schools should be on the alert for signs of abnormal personalities resulting from a somewhat unnatural social grouping.

9.7 *Adjustments for Physically Handicapped Pupils in the Regular School Program*

All resources for meeting the special needs of physically handicapped pupils as an integral part of the regular school program should be utilized before the pupil is removed, partially or fully, into special groups.

> Emphasis today is upon their participation in all phases of the school program in which they can work with profit. Their educational programs, by and large, are based upon the same general aims and objectives which undergird the programs of normal children. Full consideration, therefore, tends now to be given to every possible means of extending and adapting the regular school curriculum and methods of instruction to the needs of exceptional children as well as to the establishment of separate programs for those whose handicaps require them.[5]

Obviously, the most acutely handicapped will have the greatest need for special provisions and probably for a longer period of time than those less acutely handicapped. "Schools and classes will be needed for clinical study, hospitalization, therapy, intensive remedial instruction, and the continuing education and guidance of the most acutely handicapped."[6] It should be remembered that, whenever possible, the needs of a handicapped student should be met in conjunction with regular classroom programs.

[5] American Association of School Administrators. *The Expanding Role of Education*, p. 105. Twenty-sixth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1949.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 106.

CRIPPLED CHILDREN

9.8 *The Selection of Crippled Children*

All persons who work with children should be alerted to symptoms which denote the possible presence of a crippling handicap. Since the regular classroom teacher has more opportunities to observe the behavior of children in varying circumstances, he is likely to be the key person in detecting children with handicaps.

There are certain symptoms for which the teacher and other personnel should watch. The Bureau of Handicapped Children of the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction lists the following: [7]

1. A limp, no matter how slight, which persists over any length of time
2. Any abnormality or inequality in shape and size of feet and legs
3. Any difficulty or noticeable defect in the use of hands and arms
4. Habitual turning of the head to one particular side or inability to turn head freely from side to side
5. Poor posture, such as round shoulders, one shoulder habitually held higher than the other or ahead of the other, or one hip apparently more prominent than the other
6. Any curvature or deformity of the spine
7. Any complaint of weakness, pain, or soreness in joints or muscles which persists over any length of time or recurs repeatedly

The school must relentlessly pursue its task of discovering, diagnosing, and treating crippled children. The school's health service, particularly through its regular and systematic examination of children, should help in bringing handicaps to light. Preschool examinations will uncover some. The program must be continuous, because handicaps may appear at any time.

When the presence of a physical deviation has been discovered, the child should be referred to competent medical authorities—preferably an orthopedic specialist—for complete diagnosis and recommendations for needed adjustments in the regular school program and in special facilities.

A special problem arises in the process of selection when it is

[7] John Callahan. *Wisconsin's Program for Crippled Children*, p. 20. Madison, Wis.: Bureau of Handicapped Children, Department of Public Instruction. 1942.

discovered that multiple handicaps exist. This is often the case when children are cerebral-palsied. Frequently, this type of child will have sensory impairments along with motor disabilities. Then, too, he may appear mentally retarded because of his handicaps. Every attempt should be made to measure his capacities to do classroom work. This is not easy and requires the work of a specialist. The child with multiple handicaps needs extra attention in order to encourage and stimulate the greatest amount of growth possible.

9.9 *Educational Provisions for Crippled Children*

Provisions for crippled children may be classified into those which are a part of the public school program and those which are a part of the community. The educational services of the school may touch disabled children cared for in both situations.

1. *Provisions which are part of the public school program.* These may be (a) provisions made as a part of the regular class organization, (b) special classes in regular schools, (c) special centers in regular schools, and (d) special schools.

2. *Provisions which are part of the community.* These may be (a) residential homes and hospitals, that is, residence away from home, and (b) keeping the child at home when it seems best. For children confined to units not an immediate part of the school, instruction carried to them by the visiting teacher has inestimable educational and mental-health values.

9.10 *Medical and Therapeutic Services for Crippled Children*

Whatever is done for the crippled child in the form of medical and therapeutic services should be made an integral part of the child's total educational program. There must be teamwork among all persons working with crippled children. No one person or service can act independently and apart from what other persons or services are doing. Teachers, parents, nurses, therapists, guidance workers, social workers, and community agencies serving the needs of crippled children are all members of the team. Their concerted objective must be the rehabilitation of the handicapped child to the greatest degree possible.

The medical needs of the crippled child must be determined by

an orthopedic physician. The prescribed treatments, therapies, modifications, and adjustments in the child's program must be made by the physician. The development and rehabilitation of the child's body must be inextricably bound to his educational development. Neither can move forward to a very great extent separately, but together they can make real progress.

The work done by physical and occupational therapists should be under the direction of a physician. He should check periodically to see that the work is being carried out as prescribed, either by visiting the special class or by having the children under treatment visit the medical clinic if they are able to do so. Mackie [8] states that the teacher is an important factor in carrying out the various therapies:

> While she cannot give medical or therapeutic treatment, she can cooperate with the physician and the therapists in many ways. For example, she is the one who can make sure that the child is using proper equipment during his day in school and she may even be able to interpret recommendations to parents. She may also, through conferences with the medical authorities and the therapists, obtain suggestions for educational procedures. For example, the doctors and therapists may help work out a piece of equipment which will facilitate teaching of writing.

9.11 *Special Provisions for Crippled Students*

It is a challenge to a school to provide as many physical facilities needed by the crippled child as possible regardless of the child's placement in school. Many facilities can be furnished the crippled child in a regular classroom situation just as easily as if the child were housed in a special school. Following are some of the provisions which can be made:

1. *School housing.* The construction of new buildings for the special use of crippled children makes it possible to include, in the architectural design, features which facilitate the movement of crippled children about the building. However, for crippled children who must attend school in a conventional building, many adjustments can be made. Mackie [9] points out: "Deficiencies in school housing need not necessarily be a basis for exclusion, for in many

[8] Romaine P. Mackie. *Crippled Children in School.* Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin 5, 1948, pp. 17–18.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

instances adjustments can be made even for seriously handicapped children."

One-story buildings provided with ramps, wide hallways, spacious rooms, wide doorways, and readily accessible toilets and drinking fountains are ideal for the easy movement of crippled children during the day's activities. Every safety device possible should be included. Handrails along corridors, and even in the center of corridors, recessed radiators, and floors with properties which prevent slipping are factors worth including.

The rooms should be cheerful, well lighted, and well ventilated. These properties add to the mental-health values of the child's environment.

2. *Special equipment needed.* Various items of special equipment for use in classrooms and the therapy room may be required to make needed adjustments for crippled children. Mackie [10] points out, however:

> It is not necessary to provide all of these highly specialized items in every class, particularly at the beginning. Much equipment should be bought or built only as needed. . . . In some places physical therapy units have been set up in public schools and work has started with only a treatment table, a posture mirror, and a set of parallel walking bars. Other items were, of course, added as the program advanced.

Much of the equipment, even that used in the therapy rooms, could be built in the school's shops at nominal cost. The equipment needed in the classroom must be largely designed and built for the needs of particular students. The design, of course, must be that suggested by a physician. Much excellent work with crippled children is possible with limited and inexpensive equipment. For this reason, the smaller schools are in a position to do much toward meeting the needs of crippled children.

3. *Special instructional equipment.* The crippled child is often unable to use the conventional approaches to learning. The electric typewriter may help those who cannot write. Mechanical page turners also help. Different types of projection equipment make it possible to introduce crippled children to materials which they might

[10] *Ibid.*, pp. 19–21.

not othewise be able to use. Television, as a means of providing learning experiences, both in the classroom and for homebound children, is still undeveloped but holds great possibilities. Two-way electronic communication between homebound children and the regular classroom makes it possible for them to participate in classroom experiences.

4. *Transportation.* Many acutely handicapped children will be unable to attend school unless some regular means of transporting them is provided. Others less severely handicapped will attend school erratically unless regular transportation is provided. Transportation is not an easy problem to solve in some districts, but it should be worked out in some manner for these children. Consolidated schools, which furnish transportation for all children, have adequately met this problem. Crippled children should be encouraged to help themselves as much as possible in getting on and off the buses, but there will be some who must be carried.

5. *Adjustments to health in the classroom.* The crippled child must often operate under a modified schedule to remain in school. For those for whom the physician recommends periods of rest, this should be made possible. The amount of time spent in school should be determined by the physician, for it will vary from individual to individual.

It is unlikely that many crippled children will be able to return home at noon for lunch. Provision of a warm, well-balanced lunch at school is a project worthy of careful consideration. In addition to the nutritive values which may come, Mackie [11] points out: "The noon lunch offers an opportunity for both indirect and direct teaching of good eating habits, for social development, and sometimes for therapeutic treatment."

9.12 *Teaching Crippled Children Not in School*

Not all crippled children will be able to come to the school for their education. The school may not have the facilities to take care of the child properly, or the child's handicap may be so acute that it would be impractical for him to attend school. Such children will be found in hospitals, convalescent homes, or their own homes. In

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 22.

any case, it is the responsibility of the school to take care of the instruction of the child. Whatever educational program is attempted must be adjusted to the child's physical condition and be recommended by the physician. The work is usually performed by a visiting teacher, but in small schools which have no visiting teachers, the regular classroom teacher may be allotted time to carry on this important work.

Not only will the child continue his educational development, but the instruction may have therapeutic values in that it gives the child something worth while to do. This type of instruction provides a splendid opportunity for the school and the parent to work cooperatively.

9.13 *Educational Guidance for Crippled Children*

Because of enforced school absence for many crippled children, especially those with severe handicaps, all grade and group standards for academic experiences should be discarded. Each child's educational needs should be determined and suitable learning experiences provided on an individual basis. There should be ample opportunity for group planning and participation. The unit or activity approach seems most appropriate, since it provides a common interest for all yet is flexible enough to provide adjustments to individual needs and abilities, with each child contributing accordingly.

The crippled child should be encouraged to participate in as many of the normal classroom experiences and activities as possible, limited only by the acuteness and nature of his handicap. The teacher should familiarize himself with each child's history. He can carry out the recommendations of the physician much better if he has a thorough understanding of the problem.

For the majority of schools which provide special class facilities for crippled children, the multigrade plan must be used. Only the larger cities will have a sufficient number of crippled children to permit grouping by grades. The multigrade pupil will reflect a wide range in ages and grades.

The task of the teacher of a multigrade group is not easy. His task is twofold: (1) to provide experiences and guidance adjusted to the individual needs of the members of the group, and (2) to weld the members into a unified social group. Because of the com-

plexity of many of the cases which are, no doubt, further complicated by the development of frustrations and emotional imbalances, the teacher of acutely crippled children must understand the techniques of counseling and use them expertly at all times. "Teachers of multigrade classes are always looking for activities which will: (1) afford rich learning experiences; (2) contribute to the social and emotional development of the children; (3) draw the children's attention away from their handicaps; and (4) give the joy of group participation and achievement." [12]

9.14 *Personal Guidance for Crippled Children*

In many instances, because of the physical infirmity and the interruption of his normal social growth, a crippled child may develop certain emotional imbalances and frustrations which may have serious implications. For this reason, those persons who work with crippled children need to be alerted to the problem and do everything possible to provide preventive and remedial measures which will ensure normal personal and social adjustment.

There is the well-known tendency for parents, teachers, and other adults to show an overabundance of protection for crippled children which usually results in the adult making decisions for the handicapped child. "Crippled children, even more than non-handicapped children, need the security of well-tempered affection, but also need the greater security which can be gained through the knowledge that they can be independent in their thoughts and actions as to as great or nearly as great a degree as their non-handicapped friends." [13]

The crippled child must be helped to free himself from frustrations revolving around his handicap. He must be helped to accept his physical limitations and develop a healthy attitude toward his adjustment in a social group. He needs to feel that he is secure and wanted and that he can be independent. His adjustment to the social group will be facilitated immeasurably if he is able to develop a wholesome attitude toward his infirmity. He must be helped through counseling to see that all is not hopeless for him and that there is a useful place for him in society.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 26.

[13] William M. Cruickshank and Jane E. Dolphin. "A Study of the Emotional Needs of Crippled Children." *The Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 40, No. 5 (May, 1949), pp. 304–305.

9.15 *Vocational Guidance for Students with Crippling Disabilities*

The limitations for vocational placement of students with various types and degrees of crippling disabilities vary greatly from individual to individual. The vocational counselor should have in his possession the recommendations of a medical officer as to the physical limitations of the individual. The limitations obviously will close some vocations, but it should be remembered that there will still be many from which to choose. It is around this grouping of vocations that counseling should revolve. Counseling should be positive; it should center around what the individual can do rather than that which he cannot do.

Some positive help is available for counselors in pointing out vocations acceptable to persons with certain types of physical handicaps. The United States Civil Service Commission has prepared *A Guide for the Placement of the Physically Impaired*[14] in which some six thousand jobs under the Civil Service Commission were studied by a medical officer and recommendations were made as to whether different types of physically handicapped persons could perform them. The study is positive in approach; it points out the various types of physically handicapped persons which would be acceptable rather than those which would be unacceptable. The *guide* has value for the counselor, because it lays before the student in a counseling situation the vast number of opportunities which may be open to him.

The opinion of the medical officer does not, however, tell the whole story. Even though the handicapped person may be able to perform the motor skills needed, Shartle[15] points out: "There is also the matter of other qualifications for the job, including interests, experience, education, aptitudes, and special skills which must be weighed with the information concerning physical characteristics." All of the attributes presented by the individual must be considered individually and then as a whole in effecting all-round satisfactory adjustment to the vocational choice.

[14] United States Civil Service Commission. *A Guide for the Placement of the Physically Impaired* (4th ed.), Pamphlet 14. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. 1946.

[15] Carroll L. Shartle. *Occupational Information* (copyright 1946, 1952 by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York), p. 290. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Vocational counseling for the student with crippling disabilities should center around helping him to appraise his aptitudes, skills, and potentialities, to understand his particular handicap, to accept it, and to choose a vocation in keeping with his remaining aptitudes and abilities and providing training, placement, and follow-up services for him. Vocational counseling should include assurances for the individual that he can be successful in areas where his proficiency does not depend upon skills or attributes limited by his disability. He must be helped to develop the attitude that he can become a self-sufficient, respected citizen in his own right.

9.16 *Adjustments for Crippled Children in Smaller Schools and Isolated Areas*

As a rule, crippled children in smaller schools and isolated areas are more apt to be neglected than children in urban areas. The limited number of cases makes it difficult for any one small school to provide adequate personnel, equipment, and facilities. The answer may be found in the cooperation of a number of schools in a given area. The following adjustments may assist in the problems of meeting the needs of crippled children in the smaller schools: (1) Classes intended to serve a county or larger area may be organized centrally, (2) children may be transported to a neighboring city maintaining special facilities, (3) children may be maintained by the school in a private residential school, and (4) children may be boarded near a special school—a city school, a consolidated school with facilities, or a county school class. The smaller schools should not overlook the possibility of offering home or hospital instruction to those whose needs cannot be met otherwise.

VISUALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

9.17 *The Importance of the Problem*

There are children with some degree of lowered visual acuity in almost every classroom. Some deviations are pronounced; others are minor and, perhaps, easily remediable. Since vision is one of the principal avenues of learning, it is imperative that the school take cognizance of any visual impairment and provide needed adjustments or compensations. "Since no part of an organism can be

affected without in some measure affecting the whole, visual difficulties may influence the life of the individual in its physical, mental, emotional, social, educational, and vocational aspects." [16] For these reasons children with visual impairments need special guidance services and may need special provisions to ensure satisfactory educational growth, depending upon the acuteness of the handicap.

Visually handicapped children may be classified into two general groups, those who are educationally blind and must learn through the hearing and tactual senses and those with sufficient remaining vision who, with adaptations, may continue their education through the use of the visual sense.

9.18 *The Prevention of Visual Defects*

It is much better to prevent defective vision from developing than to let it develop and then apply corrective measures or make special provisions for those with defective vision.

Frequent examinations, good sanitation which prevents the spread of infectious diseases, and the inculcation of good health habits in each child will do much in the conservation of eyesight. Proper lighting and the use of proper materials—printed materials in particular—are precautions which the school can take. The first responsibility of the school to the child's vision is to give guidance and direction to a program, both in and out of school, which will prevent the occurrence of many disabling defects. For those who are born with visual defects of a physiological nature and for those who develop them, it is the responsibility of the school to carry on a program of special services which will assist the handicapped child in developing as fully as possible.

9.19 *Discovering Children with Visual Handicaps*

Physical examinations for the purpose of discovering defects among children should start with the preschool child. If visual defects are discovered at this time they may often be eliminated or ameliorated before entrance of the children into school.

[16] Winifred Hathaway and Berthold Lowenfeld. "Teaching the Visually Handicapped." *The Education of Exceptional Children*, p. 135. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1950. Quoted by permission of the Society.

After children enter school, all should have a regular eye examination at least every two years. If, during the regular physical examination, children should be discovered to have visual defects, they should be referred to the school's oculist. If the school has none, the parents should be notified immediately and encouraged to seek professional help without delay. Children wearing glasses should be examined to detect any needed adjustment or correction. All data gathered by the school as to results of eye examinations or possible symptoms of eye defect should be given to the oculist. These will give the oculist a basis from which to work. Oculists practicing privately in the community should be encouraged to report to the school authorities children found by them with defective vision.

During the course of a regular physical examination, any child found having less than 20/20 vision in one or both eyes should be examined by a specialist. Either form of the Snellen Chart—letter or symbol E, depending upon the reading ability of the child—may be used as a screening device. The Betts Telebinocular is also used in many schools for screening pupils with visual losses. Betts has prepared a set of ten tests mounted on stereoscopic slides to be viewed through the Telebinocular, a modified stereoscope. The tests measure clearness of vision, singleness of vision, and relationship between clearness and singleness.[17] The Telebinocular is often used in conjunction with the Snellen Chart to screen visual defects. It is an instrument readily usable in the small school.

Teachers, parents, health personnel, and other persons in a position to observe the behavior of children should watch for signs of eye trouble. Those children having acute handicaps are usually readily noticed, while those with slighter handicaps are apt to be overlooked. Here are some symptoms which should be observed:

1. The child attempts to brush away blur; rubs eyes frequently.
2. He blinks, frowns, or squints more than is common for the child with normal vision.
3. He shows inattention, fatigue, and irritability when doing close work.
4. He shuts or covers one eye; tilts or thrusts head forward when looking at objects; changes distance of the book he is reading.

[17] Emmett A. Betts. *Foundations of Reading Instruction*, pp. 187–188. New York: American Book Company. 1946.

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5. He has difficulty in reading, spelling, and other school subjects requiring intensive or prolonged use of eyes (*e.g.*, inability to stay on line; confusion of O and A, O and C, N and M).

6. He holds his body tense or screws up his face for distant or close work.

7. He has a tendency to seek more subdued or more intense light than other children.

8. He holds books or small objects close to his eyes.

9. He is unable to read board work from his seat or tell time by the ordinary schoolroom clock.

10. He fails to see objects not in his direct line of vision.

11. He is unable to determine the exact location of objects.

12. He walks with caution, stumbles or trips easily.

13. He performs poorly in games involving rapidly moving objects such as balls.

14. He has red-rimmed, encrusted, or swollen eyelids; repeated sties; watery or red eyes; crossed eyes; twitching eyes or eyelids.

15. He complains of dizziness, headaches, eyeaches, or nausea, following close work.[18]

THE EDUCATIONALLY BLIND

9.20 *Definition of the Educationally Blind*

Children are considered educationally blind if "they have a visual acuity of 20/200 or less in the better eye with correcting glasses, or an equally handicapping defect in the visual field." [19] Even though the Snellen Chart or the Betts Telebinocular has value as a screening device, the final authority in determining the amount, if any, of remaining visual acuity should be the ophthalmologist.

Some partially seeing children have progressive visual defects which mean eventual blindness. Whether it would be best to include these children in the special facilities for the educationally blind before they reach total blindness is a decision which only the ophthalmologist can make.

[18] Department of Education. *The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child.* School Bulletin 12, pp. 26–27. Trenton: State of New Jersey, Department of Education. 1947.

[19] Hathaway and Lowenfeld, *op. cit.*, p. 142.

9.21 *Educational Provisions for the Educationally Blind*

Educationally blind children, with the exception of their visual handicap and the influence it has had upon their development, are normal children. They possess the same fundamental capacities, emotions, and ambitions as other children. It is the responsibility of the school to facilitate their growth as much as possible and to help them find a place in society where they can win independence and respect. That special services and facilities must be provided for their growth and development cannot be questioned. The special facilities usually offered are:

1. *Residential schools.* For the most part, educationally blind children are educated in residential schools which attempt, through the utilization of almost all of the time of blind students, to adjust and develop them to the level necessary for satisfactory adjustment in society. Special teaching aids used by special teachers follow the regular school program as nearly as possible. Special attention is given to the socializing activities, as this is usually the crux of the criticism of the special school.

2. *The special class in a regular school.* Schools which have a number of blind students sometimes organize classes known as Braille classes. The children meet in a special home room which is under the supervision of a person trained in teaching blind children. In this room, the handicapped pupils engage in whatever supplementary activities are necessary for them to progress with normal children in the regular classroom. This type of facility is exceedingly valuable in that the child interacts in a normal situation for a significant portion of the day. Moreover, it is not necessary for him to leave his home environment. Whether a school uses a graded system of classes or a multigrade class will depend upon the number of blind children. In some states, blind children attend the residential school only for the length of time necessary to prepare them for admission to regular schools where special facilities are provided in keeping with their needs.

9.22 *Special Equipment Needed to Teach Blind Children*

The senses of touch and hearing are the avenues through which blind children must learn. The education of the blind child is greatly

facilitated if he can read and write Braille. Therefore, special equipment which permits the handwriting of Braille characters, as well as the Braille typewriter, should be provided. The regular typewriter can be used to good advantage, since it provides a speedy, readable manner of preparing materials. The recording of books on long-playing phonograph records has made possible the "talking book." This increases the amount of material covered by the blind child and facilitates his educational progress immeasurably.

Assistance with the task of locating suitable materials for the education of the blind may be secured from the American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Ky.; the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.; The American Foundation for the Blind, New York; and the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, New York.

In certain courses, equipment designed for the blind student to learn through the sense of touch should be used. Meyer [20] describes some of the available materials as follows:

> Relief maps accurately reproducing contours, outline maps with embossed lines and dots for boundaries, mountains, cities, etc., the globe embossed relief, and the use of a variety of plastic materials for self expression on the part of the child, develop geographical insight that would do credit to the student who has all the visual aids of modern education before him. . . . In mathematics, the blind child is taught to rely as little as possible upon special devices. When these do become necessary, several types of so-called number boards are available to speed calculations. Paper with embossed squares is available for graph work. In higher mathematics, texts with embossed figures are used, and several devices have been designed to facilitate the student's own work in making geometric and like figures. . . .

9.23 *Educational Guidance for Blind Children*

As far as practicable, the curriculum followed by the child in Braille classes should be the same as that provided for the normal children with whom he associates. Deletions and modifications in course content must, of course, be made. Many of the experiences which normal children have in science courses must be denied

[20] George F. Meyer. "The Visually Handicapped." *The Phi Delta Kappan.* Vol. 23, No. 2 (October, 1940), p. 58.

blind children because of the danger involved. Experiences in physical education and activities must also be planned so that the danger element is removed.

There is need for abundant experiences for the blind child in dramatics, music, and the creative arts. Dramatization provides a valuable means of expression and building confidence. Some music can be taught through the sense of touch by having the children read notes, but most of the work done in music must stress memory. Modeling is especially important to blind children, in that they use the sense of touch. This provides an excellent means of expression and is especially valuable to the blind child since he must learn to do many things by himself.

Blind students should be provided ample experiences in doing various types of handwork. Of those who have aptitude for this type of work, many will be able to develop useful skills with vocational value. The concreteness of this type of experience is exceedingly valuable to the blind child.

Relating learning experiences of blind students into units has real merit, even more so than for normal children. If learning expriences are taught as isolated elements, the blind child may have difficulty in developing relationships among them. A unified approach, as is evidenced in core and common-learnings programs, is the type of program best suited to blind students because it emphasizes meanings and relationships.

9.24 *Vocational Guidance for Blind Students*

Even though serious visual impairment complicates the job of vocational counseling, much constructive help can be given. Counseling should begin with appraising the remaining attributes of the handicapped person and helping the person to understand himself. Measurement and evaluation of the remaining attributes may be difficult, since the educational growth of educationally blind students is usually retarded. The total pattern of remaining attributes including aptitudes, emotional development, social development, interests and desires, education, and experience must be understood. The counselor should help the individual to make his vocational choices in the light of remaining attributes. Counseling should emphasize

what the handicapped person can do rather than what his handicap will not permit him to do. *A Guide for the Placement of the Physically Impaired* lists many types of positions open for this type of student. Listings, however, are based on the judgments of a medical officer. Other attributes present in the individual may prevent the selection of certain types of vocations. Counseling which emphasizes self-confidence and independence should be provided whenever needed. Unless parents, teachers, counselors, and others who guide and direct blind children are aware of the fact, and take precautionary measures, there is danger that frustrations, emotional imbalances, and maladjusted social behavior may result. Each handicapped individual must be helped to accept his handicap and to develop a healthy attitude toward life and what it holds for him. The personal adjustment of the blind student has important implications in effecting satisfactory occupational adjustment.

THE PARTIALLY SEEING

9.25 *Definition of the Partially Seeing*

Partially seeing children are those visually handicapped children who need special provisions and adjustments to enable them to continue their educational experiences through the use of their remaining visual acuity. Those classified in this category vary somewhat from school to school. The following types are usually included among the partially seeing:

1. Children having a visual acuity between 20/70 and 20/200 in the better eye after all possible medical care and optical aid have been provided
2. Children with serious, progressive eye difficulties
3. Children suffering from diseases of the eye or diseases of the body that seriously affect vision
4. Children with normal mentality who, in the opinion of the ophthalmologist and the educational authorities, need and will benefit from the special equipment and opportunities provided for the partially seeing even though they do not fall within the above classifications. [21]

[21] Hathaway and Lowenfeld, *op. cit.*, p. 136.

9.26 *Sight-saving Classes for the Partially Seeing*

The organization of special classes for partially seeing children has gained wide favor in public education. As a rule, the children are segregated only for that portion of their schoolwork which demands close eye work and for which special equipment and facilities are available in the special class. The children return to regular groups for their classroom work and other activities in which close eye work is not involved. Even though this plan calls for partial segregation, the values received by the child from the use of the special facilities contribute more to his over-all development than would remaining full time with his regular group.

It may be necessary to transfer partially seeing children from several schools or the entire community into a central school in order to have a group large enough to warrant the establishment of a sight-saving class. If only one class can be formed, it will need to be multi-graded. This means that the special help provided must proceed, in a large measure, on an individual basis. If more than one class can be formed, perhaps the grade range can be narrowed somewhat. The special class or classes should be organized in a centrally located school to facilitate transportation. Too many partially seeing children assigned to one school may create an imbalance between seeing and partially seeing children.

Within the building, the special class should be centrally located to permit easy movement of children from special class to regular room or other rooms about the building where educational and recreational experiences take place in which children with defective vision may participate without injury. The room should be sufficiently large to accommodate easy movement of the children assigned to it. Children need space to move about in gaining more advantageous angles from which to view charts, blackboards, etc. The light should be well diffused, yet sufficient to eliminate eyestrain.

9.27 *Special Equipment and Materials Needed in Sight-saving Classes*

The equipment and materials used in sight-saving rooms should be designed to ensure sight-saving qualities and maximum use by children with defective vision. Desks and chairs should be adjustable

and flexible to meet individual needs. They should be movable, thus permitting flexible adjustment to any learning situation in the room.

Globes, maps, charts, visual materials—all must have sight-saving qualities. Manufacturers of such supplies have recognized the needs of visually defective children, and excellent materials are available. Unglazed paper and crayons and pencils which makes a heavy line should be standard in a sight-saving class.

Each sight-saving room should have one or more typewriters with large type for use by teacher and pupils. Books and materials printed in either 18- or 24-point type should be available; the exact size of type used should be determined by the needs of the individual pupil.[22]

9.28 *Adjustments for the Partially Seeing in Sight-saving Classes*

Sight-saving classes are justified mainly because they make possible special provisions for the preparation of lesson materials. As much reciting and participation in regular classes with normal children as possible should be arranged. Work in sight-saving classes differs from that found in regular classes primarily from the standpoint of physical equipment, with some adjustment to the educational and physical needs of the child. There should be no radical change in the curriculum provided in sight-saving classes from the normal curriculum, except in certain activities which require close use of the eyes. Frequent rest periods for the eyes should be provided in sight-saving classes. Any period of close eye work should be followed by a rest period. Activities requiring less close eye work can be substituted for those found in a regular room such as library work or close handwork. Manuscript writing may be used to good advantage, either in a sight-saving class or a regular room where visually defective children are found, because of its legibility. As much oral work as possible is advisable.

Participation in physical activities with children of a regular class should be limited for the visually handicapped child to those experiences in which no injury will result. The teacher should evaluate each activity in terms of this policy.

[22] The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, New York, has available for distribution a comprehensive list of manufacturers and their products for use with children having visual impairments.

Visitation of an oculist to sight-saving classes at regular intervals to check on pupil progress and offer suggestions to the teacher is advisable. He should note the eye deficiency of each child in the class and make suggestions on the methods, curriculum, and materials best suited to the needs of the child. Records of all eye conditions of children assigned to sight-saving classes should be kept on a cumulative basis. Progress of the child should be checked at regular intervals in the light of his particular visual defect. Changes in adjustments and adaptations to the child may be made whenever the child will benefit from such change. No time should be lost in returning special-class pupils to regular classes whenever sufficient improvement has been made in visual acuity. Since this adjustment will be possible with many children served on a temporary basis in a sight-saving class, it is imperative for the sight-saving curriculum to follow the regular curriculum.

9.29 *Sight-saving Classes in the Secondary School*

Sight-saving classes on the junior high school level have proved their worth educationally. Methods followed in the elementary sight-saving class may be followed in the secondary school, with the exception that the student becomes more independent of the teacher. Student readers are often employed to assist such pupils. They should be selected only after they have met several criteria. They should be exceedingly capable individuals selected from the regular class who are doing the same work as the sight-saving pupils. Readers with high levels of capability will be able to help the handicapped with much more than mere reading. Interpretations and supplemental material given by the reader will enrich the experience greatly for the handicapped person. The personal qualities of the reader should also be considered. The reader should be congenial and should want to render the service for reasons over and above the monetary rewards. The interpersonal relationships between the reader and the handicapped person should reflect mutual acceptance. Interests common to both should help immeasurably.

Likewise, sight-saving classes on the senior high school level may be established and handled in a manner comparable to that in the junior high school, except that the pupils become even more self-reliant and less dependent upon the teacher. Student readers may be

employed. The procedure for the selection of readers on the junior high school level should be followed here.

Partially seeing pupils in the secondary school should be permitted to take all of their examinations directly on the typewriter. Their examination questions may be prepared for them in large type by the teacher ahead of time. Likewise, the use of the typewriter in the preparation of their lessons should be encouraged.

9.30 *Adjustments for the Partially Seeing in Regular Classrooms*

Many schools, especially smaller ones, will be unable to establish sight-saving classes. This does not mean that the child with defective vision need go unheeded in such schools. The regular classroom teacher is in a position to make many worth-while adjustments.

Pupils with lowered visual acuity should be placed advantageously in the room. The teacher should be alert to the needs of such pupils and should insist upon rest periods for the eyes at stated intervals.

It is quite possible that children who have defective vision may not progress as rapidly through the learning experiences as children with normal vision. Pressure should not be applied in an attempt to keep the handicapped child on a level with the normal child. The child should work at the pace dictated by the severity of his handicap and should strive always for quality of learning. Pressure, unwisely used, may aggravate the effects of the defect.

Teachers in regular classes may print or type, in large letters, suitable materials for children with defective vision. State libraries should be encouraged to include in their traveling units books in large type for the use of visually defective children in small schools.

In many instances, visual defects may be corrected by the use of glasses. Authorities in small schools can at least make provision for this type of adjustment for children with defective vision. In most instances, the parents will willingly seek professional help and provide the glasses; in a few instances, the school or some welfare agency must take the initiative.

9.31 *Adjustments for the Partially Seeing in Small Schools and Rural Areas*

Because of the few pupils needing sight-saving adjustments in a single small school, the special class is usually not practicable. There

are other ways, however, in which the needs of partially seeing children in such areas may be met. They may be brought together from a larger area to a centrally located school where their deficiencies may be diagnosed and treatment provided. Children may be transported daily from the home district or they may be boarded in supervised homes near the school, returning to their homes each week end. Consolidated schools, with more pupils, may need to establish a sight-saving class. In this case, the important problem of transportation is automatically solved. The small school may be able to make arrangements with a nearby school having sight-saving classes to care for its pupils. The pupils could be transported daily, or perhaps arrangements could be made for them to board in a supervised home.

9.32 *Vocational Guidance for the Partially Seeing*

A positive approach which emphasizes what a partially seeing student can do rather than what he cannot do should be used. It is true that certain vocations will be closed to him. There still remain many jobs which he can do.[23] The counselor should help each visually handicapped pupil to appraise his remaining aptitudes, potentialities, and interests and then to choose accordingly. If the individual has the necessary aptitudes, interests, and personal qualities, if his remaining visual acuity is sufficient to perform the task and conserve what is left, and if his performance can in no way place in jeopardy the welfare of others, it would seem that a satisfactory choice has been made.

The counseling of partially seeing individuals on occupational choice, training, and placement should be the concern of parents, teachers, counselors, and others who guide and direct their growth experiences. It must be a cooperative undertaking.

Consideration of the presence of frustrations and emotional and social maladjustments is an important element in counseling, as successful placement in an occupation may hinge upon it. Conditions of this sort should be eliminated or alleviated as much as possible. The individual must feel secure and know that he is wanted. His attitude toward his handicap and his place in adult life should be positive. He needs assurances that he can realize certain objec-

[23] For lists of vocations open to those with impaired vision, see *A Guide for the Placement of the Physically Impaired.*

tives like any other person. This is an important area of counseling with partially seeing individuals.

ACOUSTICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

9.33 *The Selection of Acoustically Handicapped Children*

School children should be given regular hearing examinations as a matter of school policy. Each child should have such an examination at least every two years, or oftener if he has progressive deafness. If one-half of the children are examined each year, all children will receive an examination every two years. Children entering school after having had measles, scarlet fever, or similar diseases should be given a hearing test. The examination of preschool children may bring to light hearing impairments which are remediable if attacked at an early age and possibly eliminated before the child starts to school. Pupils assigned to lip-reading classes, hearing-aid classes, or segregated or residential schools and classes should be tested each year, or as often as the need dictates, to learn if a different adjustment is necessary.

The multiple audiometer is in wide use as a screening device in locating acoustically handicapped children. As many as forty pupils may be tested at one time. Variations in the use of this equipment permit the testing of children who cannot write. All pupils showing hearing deficiencies on the multiple audiometer should be tested on an individual audiometer, sometimes referred to as a pure-tone audiometer. An experienced operator of the individual audiometer can test a pupil in eight to ten minutes.[24]

Many children attend small schools or schools in isolated areas where an audiometer is not available. There are certain simple hearing tests—the forced-whisper and the watch-tick tests—which can be used for screening with some degree of success. It should be remembered, however, that these are crude measures, without adequate standardization, and should not be used in the final analysis in determining the hearing loss.

[24] The Council on Physical Medicine, Chicago, should be contacted for recommendations on audiometers before a purchase is made by a school.

In administering the forced-whisper test, the examiner stands 20 feet from the pupil, who stands with his ear turned toward the examiner. The opposite ear is closed. The examiner whispers words or numbers in an unaccented manner. If the child cannot hear the sounds at 20 feet, the examiner moves forward until he can. A child may hear at 15 feet what he normally should hear at 20 feet. His rating would be 20/15 for the ear tested.

Because of the uniformity of the watch tick, it is regarded as somewhat more reliable than the forced whisper. The standard distance for hearing the watch tick is 36 inches. The child should close his eyes and stand with ear being tested toward the examiner with the opposite ear closed. A child may receive a rating of 36/30, which means that he hears at 30 inches what he normally should hear at 36 inches.

Upon the analysis of information gathered by means of either the forced-whisper or the watch-tick screening test the services of a specialist should be procured for more accurate measurement and diagnosis.

All teachers and other personnel coming in contact with pupils should be on the alert to notice symptoms of hearing impairment in children. Following are some symptoms which children with impaired hearing often display:

1. The child lacks the normal response to sound; for instance, he may not hear the speech of a person whom he does not see.
2. He watches the facial characteristics of the speaker more than does the child with normal hearing.
3. He asks the speaker to repeat what has been said more frequently than does the child with normal hearing.
4. He sometimes has an unusual quality of voice.
5. He often has defects in speech.
6. He becomes more easily distracted by movement than does the child with normal hearing.
7. He may attempt to get unusually close to the speaker or to the source of the sound.
8. He may be retarded in school because of his hearing impairment.

9. He appears listless, inattentive, dazed, or confused because of an inability to hear.

10. He turns his head in order to see better the face of the speaker or to favor the better ear.[25]

9.34 *The Classification of Acoustically Handicapped Children*

It is not a simple task to classify acoustically handicapped children according to the amount of loss of hearing in relation to their educational needs. Each child must be studied individually and classified accordingly. The following groupings may serve as guides in classifying children with acoustical handicaps:

1. Children with slight losses. These children are on the border line between normal hearing and significant defective hearing.
2. Children with moderate losses. These are the hard-of-hearing children.
3. Children with marked losses. These children are on the border line between the hard of hearing and the deaf. They do not have enough hearing to learn language and speech with the unaided ear, but they have residual hearing which can be utilized in their education.
4. Children with profound losses. These are the deaf children who do not learn speech and language through their ears even with benefit of amplified sound.[26]

9.35 *Educational Provisions for Acoustically Handicapped Children*

Children having acoustical handicaps need well-planned educational guidance. They have special needs; unless these needs are met through the regular facilities and services of the school with supplementary help through special facilities and services, unsatisfactory school progress attended by personal frustrations and emotional imbalances is likely to result.

All remedial measures should be carried out within the frame work of the regular school and health system. It is psychologically and educationally

[25] *The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child*, p. 20.

[26] Clarence D. O'Connor and Alice Streng. "Teaching the Acoustically Handicapped." *The Education of Exceptional Children*, p. 153. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1950. Quoted by permission of the Society.

desirable that the child should not be prevented from associating with children who hear normally. Segregation for lip reading and auditory training should be considered part of his school program.[27]

The nature of the handicap, its degree of acuteness, and the child's educational needs should determine the kind and amount of remedial education necessary. If the child's total growth and development can be facilitated by either partial or full-time segregation in special facilities, then the values of remaining in the regular grade or group should be sacrificed. The welfare of the child must be the determining factor upon which all decisions are based.

9.36 *Adjustments for Acoustically Handicapped Children within Regular Classrooms*

Children having only slight impairments will be able to make satisfactory educational progress by remaining full time in a regular room. For these children and for others with more serious impairments who may be enrolled part time in special remedial classes, the teacher can make many worth-while adjustments.

The education of acoustically handicapped children in a regular classroom with normal children preserves a natural social setting for the afflicted child. The child learns through experience to live, work, and grow with normal children, which will fit him to take his place in society.

Full information concerning the child's hearing defect must be in the hands of the teacher. He must know the nature of the affliction and whether one ear or both ears are involved. Only with this information can he attempt to adjust to the child's needs.

The seating of the child is of prime importance. He should be advantageously placed in order to view clearly the teacher and pupils as they talk. The child with impaired hearing must learn lip reading in order to keep abreast of the class. Placement to one side of the class, possibly two or three seats from the front, would seem most advantageous. The side chosen should be the windowed side, thus eliminating the possibility of the pupil looking into the light while viewing teacher or other pupils. Placement to one side permits easy turning of the head to watch the lips of other reciting children. Exact

[27] S. Richard Silverman. "The Hard-of-hearing Child." *Journal of the National Education Association*. Vol. 39, No. 2 (February, 1950). p. 137.

placement of the handicapped child, however, must be fitted to his individual needs.

The teacher does not need to speak with more volume than usual, but should adopt a natural, well-modulated voice with clear enunciation. Gestures and drawn-out speech only distract and confuse the handicapped child. The teacher should face the class at all times while speaking. Care should be taken to give assignments so that the child clearly understands them. He should not be bypassed in this activity. The teacher should be sure that he has the attention of acoustically handicapped children before he speaks.

The child with impaired hearing in a regular classroom should be expected to engage in all activities which normal children engage in. Physical activities, games, singing, choral speaking—things the normal child does—should be included in the program for the acoustically handicapped.

Pupil adjustment and progress are the criteria of the effectiveness of the program. The pupil's failure to make progress probably indicates further hearing tests accompanied by a psychological examination. The child may need some type of supplementary help not yet begun.

9.37 *Lip-reading Groups Supplementary to Regular Classroom Work*

Lip-reading instruction given by a special itinerant teacher may be used to aid acoustically handicapped children having a moderate hearing loss. Newhart and Reger [28] state that the following children may fall in this category: "those children whose better ear has an impairment of 25 decibels or more at 512, 1024 and 2048 cycles which does not improve under medical care within six months." Other evidences which may indicate a need for supplementary help are unsatisfactory educational progress and the presence of frustrations and failure to adjust socially.

Children needing lip-reading instruction may be withdrawn from the regular classroom and placed in lip-reading classes for one or

[28] Horace Newhart and Scott N. Reger. *Syllabus of Audiometric Procedures on the Administration of a Program for the Conservation of Hearing of School Children*, p. 11. Rochester, Minn.: American Academy of Ophthalmology and Otolaryngology. April, 1945.

two periods each week for the purpose of receiving lip-reading instruction. The classes will vary in length from twenty to forty minutes, depending upon the age of the children. Lip-reading classes should include not more than eight or ten pupils.

Group instruction in lip-reading classes may be supplanted by individual instruction by the itinerant teacher. There will be certain pupils wholly unable to profit from group instruction and for whom individual lip-reading instruction will be necessary.

The regular classroom teacher and the itinerant teacher must work cooperatively on individual pupil problems. The itinerant teacher will be able to make to the regular teacher many valuable suggestions for remedial and corrective work in speech and lip reading. The regular teacher should carry out, through actual practice in the classroom, the drill and corrective work recommended. Only through close cooperation of the two teachers will the work of the special teacher be of lasting benefit to the handicapped child.

9.38 *Hearing-aid Groups Supplementary to Regular Classroom Work*

Acoustically handicapped children with marked impairments will need supplementary help and training through hearing aids in addition to lip-reading instruction and adjustments within the regular classrooms. Many schools will not have a sufficient number of pupils to justify the establishment of facilities of this sort; deafened children needing this adjustment will probably be placed in a residential school.

Using the acuteness of the impairment as a basis for determining the need for hearing-aid assistance, Newhart and Reger [29] state that "children whose better ear has an average impairment of 35 decibels or more at 512, 1024, and 2048 cycles, which does not improve under medical care within six months, should be considered by the otologist and the school authorities in relation to the use of a hearing aid." Evidences other than the marked loss of hearing would be the student's failure to adjust personally and educationally through the special help provided by the special lip-reading teacher and the regular classroom teacher.

Children of this category should be sent into hearing-aid groups

[29] *Ibid.*

for special training in speech and acoustics. The major portion of the child's time is spent in a regular classroom carrying on the activities of a normal child as far as possible.

The special room should be insulated against outside disturbing sounds as much as possible. The principal equipment used is a group hearing aid, each child having individual earphones which can be individually adjusted. Classes must remain small—eight to ten pupils at the most.

Close cooperation must exist between the teacher of the regular classroom and the teacher of the hearing-aid center. The regular classroom teacher must develop still further the skills learned by the pupil in the special center.

It is possible that some students in this classification will be able to use individual hearing aids to good advantage. Since this is a device the student can carry with him and use in the regular classroom, it may prove to be of inestimable value in facilitating his progress. An otologist should recommend the type of aid best suited for an individual, relative to his type of hearing loss. The student with a hearing aid needs counseling and guidance in developing a wholesome attitude toward wearing the aid. Even though a student wears an aid, he may profit from the special help given in hearing-aid groups.

9.39 *Adjustments in Special Classes and Schools for Acoustically Handicapped Children with Profound Hearing Losses*

The special class or school for children with profound handicaps means, for the most part, total segregation. The special school, obviously, means total segregation. There may be some opportunity for mingling with normal pupils for special-class pupils, but because of the severity of their handicap they will need the advantages offered by the special class almost full time. Since there is, at least, limited opportunity for associations with normal children, it would seem that the special class located in a regular school would offer advantages over the residential or day school.

Those needing special class or school facilities are described by Newhart and Reger [30] as "educable children who repeatedly fail in their school work because of impaired hearing, even with the assist-

[30] *Ibid.*

ance of medical treatment, lip-reading and hearing aids." Placement of acoustically handicapped children in a special school or class should be done only after all other adjustments centering around the framework of the regular school have been tried.

9.40 *Educational Guidance for Acoustically Handicapped Children*

Acoustically handicapped children should follow essentially the same curriculum as that followed by normally hearing children. Adjustments will need to be made in keeping with the acuteness of the handicap. Integration of the child's special-class experiences, particularly those centering around speech, with those he has in his regular class is important. The child will need guidance and help in accomplishing this adjustment. "The child should always be encouraged to participate fully in all school and extra-curriculum activities and sports, assembly programs, scouting activities, and the like. He should be considered as much an integral part of the school community as any other child in attendance at the school." [31] Acoustically handicapped children need much individual assistance. Because of their handicap, they may be retarded in their educational progress. Alertness on the part of the teacher to the child's special educational needs is important.

9.41 *Vocational Guidance for Acoustically Handicapped Children*

Satisfactory vocational orientation and training must be as much a part of the education of the acoustically handicapped as is their social, cultural, and academic training. They should have the same opportunities for vocational training as normal children if they have aptitude for it and can profit from the experience. Some well-trained person who knows the vocational limitations of the acoustically handicapped should guide them.

The range of occupations open to them is almost as wide as for normally hearing persons. Emphasis should be upon those vocations for which they can qualify rather than upon those for which they would not be fitted.[32]

[31] O'Connor and Streng, *op. cit.*, p. 167.

[32] See *A Guide for the Placement of the Physically Impaired* for suggested vocations for which acoustically handicapped persons can qualify based on the judgment of a medical officer.

The basic aptitudes, interests, and personality factors should serve as guides, for the most part, in orientation, preparation, and entrance of these persons into a vocation. Many acoustically handicapped persons will be able to go to college and progress successfully.

Acoustically handicapped pupils should be counseled from the viewpoint that they can attain success in normal groups and that they can gain independence and be respected in adult life. Evidences of frustrations and inability to adjust socially should be approached through counseling. These factors play an important role in successful adjustment to one's occupational life and should be alleviated, if possible, before entrance into an occupation.

9.42 *Importance of Preschool Education of the Acutely Acoustically Handicapped*

The education of the parent of the deaf child is almost as important as the education of the child. Classes may be established for preschool deaf children and their mothers. Civic organizations have been known to organize such classes with good results. Most schools lack sufficient funds and personnel to deal in preschool education of the acutely handicapped. As a rule, acutely handicapped children who have had preschool experience learn more rapidly in school than those lacking such training. The training of congenitally deaf children should be begun at as early an age as possible to facilitate flexible speech and to take advantage of the natural efforts of every child to want to speak. For this reason, some schools admit preschool children to the special schools and classes with a chronological age of four years.

9.43 *Adjustments for Acoustically Handicapped Children in Small Schools and Rural Areas*

The many provisions suggested for acoustically handicapped children in regular classrooms, except special instruction in lip reading and instruction with hearing aids, are just as applicable to small schools and to rural areas as to larger cities. Even special help from an itinerant lip-reading teacher is available for such schools if a number of them share jointly the cost of such service. The itinerant teacher could travel from school to school helping acoustically

handicapped pupils and to the teachers of those pupils. For the hearing-aid type of help, a number of small schools could jointly finance a centrally located hearing-aid room to which children from outlying districts could be transported daily. It is possible that children could be boarded near the school, thus permitting return to their homes on week ends. Those pupils who have profound hearing handicaps must be sent to state residential schools for the deaf.

PHYSICALLY DELICATE CHILDREN

9.44 *The Identification of Physically Delicate Children*

The physically delicate group includes children who are in need of special, well-coordinated medical and educational services if they are to remain in school. Their physical handicaps may not elicit the attention which other handicapped groups receive, but their handicaps are often equally disabling. The child with a heart impairment may have a more serious problem than the child with a twisted limb, although it is not discernible to the eye.

Handicapped children usually included in this classification are the undernourished, the tubercular, the cardiac, the epileptic, and those students with glandular imbalances. In some instances, children with heart impairments are included with crippled children, but since their needs consist primarily of proper rest and a modified schedule of classes and activities, it seems logical to include them with physically delicate children.

The needs of this special group of children can be determined only by a thorough medical examination given by a physician or preferably by a specialist in the area in which the child's handicap lies. Medical diagnosis and treatment are exceedingly important with this group, since their educational progress hinges directly upon physical status.

The discovery of these children is a continuous process, since disabling characteristics are continuously developing. Some of the handicaps may be only temporary; others may be permanent. "The location of such children demands the full cooperation of private physicians, teachers, public health nurses, public and private welfare agencies, religious groups, and other civic leaders within the

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community." [33] Frequent health examinations in schools, in addition to community-wide surveys, will disclose many physically delicate children who need special guidance and services developed for them.

9.45 *Adjustments in Special Health Rooms for the Delicate Group*

It is significant to note that the appearance of the special health room, as a special adjustment, is rapidly taking the place of the traditional fresh-air or open-window classrooms which operated on the principle that delicate children needed plenty of fresh air with low temperatures. The characteristics of the modern health room are as follows:

1. Adequate ventilation, but with reasonable temperature
2. Midmorning and midafternoon rest periods, during which clothing is loosened and the children sleep on cots
3. Morning, noon, and midafternoon feeding, when prescribed
4. Transportation to and from school
5. A drastically reduced program of studies, which usually requires additional years in school to complete the minimum essentials
6. Practical instruction in personal hygiene and preventive care [34]

Whether to group delicate children in special health rooms or to adjust to each child's needs in the regular classroom will depend upon the viewpoint of each school. The needs of most children in the delicate group may be met in the regular classroom if certain adjustments are made. These adjustments may be listed as follows:

1. A shortened school day, with a reduced program of studies in which the essentials are stressed
2. Rest instead of exercise during recess and physical education
3. A warm lunch at noon and such other feeding as recommended by medical adviser or family physician
4. Visits to the home by the school nurse or visiting teacher to

[33] William M. Cruickshank and William G. Peacher. "Special Education for the Epileptic, the Tubercular, and Children with Glandular Disorders." *The Education of Exceptional Children*, p. 218. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1950. Quoted by permission of the Society.

[34] American Association of School Administrators. *Health in Schools*, p. 167. Twentieth Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: The Association. 1942.

ensure adequate food and rest and freedom from heavy household duties

5. Adequate ventilation and heating [35]

Adjusting to the needs of the delicate group in the regular classroom, if possible, has the distinct advantage in that children remain with their normal groups. This is an important factor in the normal social development of the child.

Obviously, only those delicate children with pronounced handicaps should be placed in the special health room. Even though this means at least partial segregation, it is undoubtedly the means by which some are permitted to come to school who would otherwise have to remain at home. Unless a child has a permanent disability, assignment to a special health class should be on a temporary basis. Upon the recommendation of the school physician, the child should be transferred to a regular room from the special health room, perhaps with a modified program. Change from special to regular class or from regular to special class should be made whenever it appears that the child will be benefited by such change. The course of study followed by the delicate child should be essentially the same as that followed in normal groups. This arrangement would permit transition by the pupil from one group to another without interruption of his educational development.

9.46 *The Importance of Cooperation among Home, School, and Community*

Close cooperation between the home and school and, in many instances, with certain community welfare agencies is exceedingly important in work with delicate children. The cause of the handicap may often be traced to the home; unless a certain condition is eliminated, the good done by the school will be undone by the home. There may be need for work by social and welfare workers in the home before the home becomes a contributing member of the team. Conferences between parents and teachers provide for an exchange of ideas and information about the pupil, and thus the work of each complements the work of the other. Helping delicate children calls for teamwork.

[35] *Ibid.*

9.47 *Adjustments for Delicate Children in Small Schools and Rural Areas*

The special health room for delicate children in small schools and rural areas is impossible unless several schools organize a centrally located special health room to which children can be transported daily. Consolidated schools, because of their size and transportation facilities, might easily justify the organization of such a class. Teachers of regular rooms in small schools and rural areas should make every attempt to make as many of the foregoing health adjustments as possible when individual pupil needs dictate. Any health adjustment possible in a regular room in the large school can be practiced in the regular room of the small school.

9.48 *Vocational Guidance for Delicate Students*

When physically delicate students move into the secondary school, there is need for special emphasis upon vocational guidance if they still have the disability or if there is danger that the disability might return. Because of the danger that the disability could return if a student were placed in a vocation which would lower resistance, there is need for expert counseling in consultation with a specialist in the field in which the student's disability is found. The physician should determine the type of vocation each disabled person should enter. Having this information at hand, the counselor should proceed to help the student assess his remaining aptitudes, skills, interests, and other factors and choose a vocation accordingly. Emphasis in counseling should be upon what the student can do rather than upon what he cannot do. *A Guide for the Placement of the Physically Impaired* lists a large number of vocations for which persons having heart impairments and pulmonary tuberculosis can qualify from a medical standpoint. This publication, together with suggestions from the consulting physician on each individual case, should give the counselor much assistance in helping the student to select a vocation in keeping with his pattern of abilities and interests.

The range of occupations open to the epileptic is large. The severity of the disability will affect the range of selection to some extent, as some individuals are affected to a greater degree than others. The advice of an expert physician on epilepsy should be secured in the

guidance of epileptic persons. So far as the disability is concerned, any occupation is acceptable unless, in case of a seizure, there is chance of injury to the afflicted person or to those about him. Shartle lists a number of vocations in which epileptics have been known to work successfully.[36] Many epileptics will be able to prepare themselves professionally through college training. Over and above considerations given to the disability, factors which include aptitudes, interests, training, education, and others will be treated as in a normal counseling situation.

9.49 *Special Adjustments for Special Types of Delicate Children*

Even though the various types of children found in the delicate group have many needs in common, there are specific adjustments which should also be made for each type. Some suggestions follow.

UNDERNOURISHED CHILDREN

9.50 *The Identification of Undernourished Children*

Other descriptive terms sometimes used to identify this group are undervitalized, anemic, lowered vitality, malnourished, and delicate. All terms indicate a state of "lower physiological limits." [37] This condition may be temporary or permanent. It may be the result of inherited tendencies, poor nutrition, poor health habits, other factors of a similar nature, or a combination of them. The net result is that the child lacks the physical energy and stamina to progress in school without the help of special adjustments.

9.51 *Educational Adjustments for Undernourished Children*

A majority of these pupils should remain in the regular classroom and operate under a modified program which includes a modified schedule of classes and activities in keeping with physical needs, provisions for rest and supplementary food if prescribed, and special attention given by the teacher to the child's health habits. Placement

[36] Shartle, *op. cit.*, p. 313.

[37] John J. Lee and Lee M. Vincent. "Exceptional Children." *Early Childhood Education*, p. 333. Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1947. Quoted by permission of the Society.

in a special health room is desirable for the acutely handicapped who would not be permitted to attend school otherwise. In the absence of a special health room, the acutely handicapped should remain at home where his special health needs may be met. Home instruction for this type of child should be provided by the school.

Adequate medical services must be provided for the undernourished child at all times. All adjustments, health and educational, which are to be made in the school should be made upon the recommendation of a physician. The regular curriculum of the school should be followed by these children, adjusted only to conform to their physical resources.

TUBERCULOUS CHILDREN

9.52 *Adjustments for Children with Active Tuberculosis*

The child with progressive, infectious tuberculosis should obviously be excluded from school because of the danger of infecting other children and the further impairment which can come to him. He must receive treatment, which requires placement in a sanatorium. Periods of rest and convalescence of varying lengths, according to the severity of the infection, will be necessary.

During periods of treatment for this type of physically handicapped child, either in the sanatorium or at home, the school should assume the responsibility of doing what it can to continue his educational progress. Bedside and home instruction should be provided, the amount and nature of which should be recommended by a physician. The child's health comes first, his educational progress second.

9.53 *Adjustments for Children with Inactive Tuberculosis*

When it has been determined by medical authorities that the infection has been arrested and the child has the physical stamina to attend school again, he should be returned to a special health room or to his regular classroom. The special health room, because of its special precautions, may serve as the transition stage between home and regular classroom. Direct entrance into the regular classroom is preferable, if the physician decides that the child is physically capable of doing the work with adjustments.

9.54 *Guidance Problems of Tuberculous Children*

With early diagnosis and treatment of tuberculous children, the chances for complete recovery are excellent. Only in cases where recurrences are possible are vocational-guidance implications present. In these cases, the individual should be guided in the selection of an occupation in keeping with his physical limitations. See Sec. 9.48 for precautions in the vocational guidance of this group of disabled students.

The long period of convalescence sometimes required may be the cause of disabling personal maladjustments. For this reason, the child should be kept as busy as his physical condition will permit, not only for the educational gain but also for the mental hygiene values the activity may have. Children who develop imbalances, of a personal or a social nature, should be helped through individual counseling and group therapy.

CHILDREN WITH HEART IMPAIRMENTS

9.55 *The Identification of Children with Heart Impairments*

The range of impairment among cardiac children extends from very mild impairments to those which necessitate complete bed rest. Each child with a cardiac condition must be handled as an individual, with adjustments made accordingly.

The teacher should be on the alert for children with possible heart impairments. Labored or difficult breathing, undue fatigue, repeated nosebleeds, and blueness of skin, especially lips, should be noted.[38] In all cases of suspected heart impairments, the child should be referred to a physician for diagnosis and examination. The physician should recommend the type of health measures to be followed and the amount and type of educational program to be carried.

9.56 *Educational Adjustments for Children with Heart Impairments*

Most cardiac children can operate successfully within the regular classroom with adjustments being made in accordance with their handicaps. The special health room may be a suitable place for those

[38] *The Classroom Teacher Can Help the Handicapped Child*, p. 49.

with more serious impairments and where special precautions may be taken. It is important, however, that the environment of the cardiac child be kept as normal as possible. Placement in the regular classroom, if at all possible, assures the best social adjustment. Children with serious heart impairments may need complete bed rest, either at home or in a hospital, for indefinite lengths of time. Guided by the recommendations of the physician, the school should continue its educational program for the child through bedside instruction. Two-way electronic communication systems make it possible for the cardiac to listen in on classroom work and to participate in the classroom discussions. Programs of this sort have mental-health as well as educational values.

The location of rooms in schools in which cardiacs are placed should be given careful consideration. A room located on the first floor is best, in order to eliminate the extra physical strain of climbing stairs. Rooms on higher floors may be used if elevators are available. Transportation to and from school is necessary for many cases. The recommendation of the physician should be followed in determining those who should be transported.

9.57 *Adjustments within Classrooms for Children with Heart Impairments*

Those teachers directing and guiding the experiences of cardiacs should be informed of the modified program as recommended by the physician. Close supervision of the exercise of pupils with impaired hearts must be given at all times. Under no circumstances should cardiac cases participate in fire drills or rapid dismissals from school. Neither should they be exploited as messengers around the school. Where the need dictates, cardiac cases should be dismissed ahead of schedule or retained until others have departed. This eliminates stress and strain. Every precaution should be taken to guard their health. No child suffering from a heart ailment should be placed in a permanent category but should be examined frequently and reclassified if conditions warrant. Movement or transfer of children with heart impairments from one adjustment or class to another should be made upon the recommendation of a physician. The child may gradually progress from home instruction to a special health

room and eventually to his regular room. The door should always be left open for an adjustment backward, should the child's condition becomes worse.

The academic program of the cardiac should approximate the curriculum of the normal child as nearly as possible. By following this practice, the deviating child will be able to adjust readily in transferring from one adjustment to another.

CHILDREN WITH EPILEPSY

9.58 *The Importance of Medical Services for the Epileptic*

Children impaired with epilepsy present a wide range of differences as a result of the handicap. The frequency and intensity of the seizures vary from child to child. Each child must be studied as an individual and a plan devised which takes into consideration his educational program and his physical condition.

The child afflicted with epilepsy should be under the care of a physician. Progress has been made in recent years toward the successful treatment of this type of handicap. "New and special medicants have recently been developed which, if properly administered, will prevent seizures in many children and will reduce the frequency and seriousness for many others." [39] Because of these strides forward in successful treatment, many epileptic children may be permitted to attend school who otherwise might be excluded. Treatment should begin as soon as the seizures are first noticed.

9.59 *Educational Adjustments for Epileptic Children*

The epileptic child has the right to expect the school to provide for his educational needs. "Intellectually, the epileptic child is not greatly dissimilar to the nonepileptic child. If given suitable opportunity, the epileptic child has nearly the same ability to learn as the child who is physically normal." [40]

There are those who believe that the epileptic child should participate in the school's program. A number of the larger schools have developed special day schools for epileptic children. They contend

[39] Lee and Vincent, *op. cit.*, p. 326.

[40] Cruickshank and Peacher, *op. cit.*, p. 224.

that proper physical attention can be given to them during seizures and that medical treatment can be carried out. It is obvious that even the more severely afflicted could be cared for in such a program. But since the epileptic child is near normal in all respects other than the seizures, there are many who contend that most epileptic children can be cared for in the regular school program.

Whether a child with epilepsy should attend school is a matter for the specialists to decide. Cruickshank and Peacher [41] state that "the medical officer should be responsible for seeing that an accurate diagnosis is made and, together with psychological and psychiatric counsel, should determine whether or not the child is physically fit to continue in school."

The small school without the special day-school facility is forced to exclude those epileptic children who have frequent and intense seizures because of the danger which might come to the afflicted child and the interruption of the educational program for the remaining children. For those children excluded from school, home instruction should be provided. Sufficient improvement often occurs for the child to attend school again. Home instruction greatly facilitates the child's re-entrance into school.

The educational needs of the epileptic child are similar to those of the physically normal child. Therefore the same curricular experiences should be followed, for the most part. Aspects of the program which produce tensions and extreme exertions should be adjusted.

9.60 *The Teacher and the Epileptic Child*

Epileptic children who attend school must be expected to have seizures. For this reason, the teacher should be helped to understand the epileptic child and know what to do in case of a seizure. Every precaution should be taken to see that the child does not receive injuries during a seizure. The child should be placed on the floor and left alone until the attack is over. A period of rest may be needed after a seizure.

There is wide variation in the nature and intensity of seizures. "Symptoms may occur in varying proportions in different patients and in the same patients at different times. A seizure may be a transient impairment of consciousness so slight as to be unrecognizable or

[41] *Ibid.*, p. 227.

a convulsion of demoniacal fury." [42] One can conclude from this statement that to predict within prescribed limits the nature of a seizure would be impossible.

In cases where it is possible for the epileptic to sense warnings that a seizure is approaching or if certain symptoms are noticeable to others, then the child should be removed from the schoolroom to a place where his welfare can be protected. Lennox [43] states:

> About one-half of patients experience premonitory symptoms of a seizure. These are various, consisting perhaps of a sensation of dizziness or of discomfort in the abdomen or, in patients having a localized cortical lesion, a numbness or spasm of an extremity. The aura, which corresponds to the first gust before a storm, may be too brief to permit the patient to sit or lie down.

It is the responsibility of the teacher to learn as much as possible about each epileptic child under his supervision. The child's physician or the school's health services can supply information on symptoms which the child has displayed in the past before seizures and possibly some information as to the nature and severity of seizures.

The role of a teacher of an epileptic child is far greater than looking after the physical needs of the child during a seizure. A job which may be even more important that this lies in the realm of creating in his own mind and in the minds of other children in the room attitudes toward the epileptic which encourage the development of a wholesome personality. First of all, the teacher should never attach a stigma to the afflicted child. His attitude on this will greatly influence the attitudes of other children in the room. At some time when the afflicted child is absent from the room, frank and open discussions should be held with the children on the problems of the epileptic child. Through the teacher's leadership the children can be helped to realize that the afflicted member of their class is just like them except that he has a special problem and that they can perhaps help him with the problem. Feelings of understanding, friendliness, willingness to help but never feelings of pity seem best to emphasize

[42] William G. Lennox. "Convulsive States and Syncope." Published in Russell L. Cecil. *A Textbook of Medicine* (7th ed.), p. 1500. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company. 1947.

[43] *Ibid.*

among children. Attitudes of this sort will permit the room as a whole to remain calm in case an afflicted child is beset with a seizure.

9.61 *Personal Guidance for the Epileptic*

Many children with epilepsy develop maladjusted personality patterns. There is no one set pattern peculiar to the group. "There is a great and urgent need for developing and extending services and treatment facilities for epileptic children since, from the standpoint of mental health, epilepsy is one of the most devastating of all human afflictions." [44] Treatment begun as early in the life of the child as possible may mean partial or complete recovery on the part of the child, thus also alleviating the mental-health problem. Admission to regular schools and participation in normal groups may have significant value in promoting mental health. The cooperation of the parent should be elicited in effecting mental-health therapies possible in the home. Counseling on personal problems and adjustments should constitute an important aspect of the services of the school. The teacher of epileptic children should be aware of mental-health measures which he can put into practice.

CHILDREN WITH GLANDULAR IMBALANCES

9.62 *Special Adjustments for Children with Glandular Imbalances*

Medical science has made important discoveries concerning the importance of glandular secretions that affect the physiological development of children. The malfunction of glands may have a powerful impact not only on the physiological development but also on the psychological and educational development of the child. The school should assist in the medical treatment of these individuals and plan educational programs accordingly.

The educational program must take cognizance of the reason for any growth disturbance observed, must be contributory to the psychological orientation of children who are experiencing such disturbances and must provide an atmosphere in which the child may adjust to the limits of his capacity and be permitted to benefit from the medical therapy which is being employed.[45]

[44] Lee and Vincent, *op. cit.*, p. 326.
[45] Cruickshank and Peacher, *op. cit.*, p. 236.

CHILDREN WITH SPEECH IMPAIRMENTS

9.63 *The Identification of Children with Speech Impairments*

Children present wide variations in the type and degree of speech impairments. The serious impairments are obvious, whereas some impairments are hardly discernible. Drakesmith[46] states that if a child's speech differs so much from other children that it calls more attention to his way of speaking than to what he says, then help is needed. The child with any noticeable irregularity in speech should be thoroughly examined by either a speech correctionist or a physician to determine the nature and cause of the handicap.

The classroom teacher is in an excellent position to observe irregularities in speech because of his opportunity to observe children in a variety of situations over a period of time. All personnel coming in contact with school children should be alert to symptoms denoting possible impairment of speech.

9.64 *The Diagnosis of Children with Speech Impairments*

Speech impairment is the result of a factor or condition or a combination of conditions found in the individual or in his environment. Diagnosis is concerned with determining the cause or causes of the impairment. Since the cause may be attributed to physiological or environmental conditions or to the child's emotional status, diagnosis is often complex and requires the services of a specialist. No person should attempt diagnosis without adequate training. The speech correctionist can handle diagnoses in cases where the causes are environmental or emotional, but medical services are needed in handling those with physiological bases.

9.65 *The Classification of Children with Speech Impairments*

Broadly speaking, speech disorders of children may be classified as functional and organic. Some disorders falling under each type are as follows:

1. Functional disorders
   a. Articulatory defects
   b. Stuttering

[46] Dorothy Drakesmith. "Speech Problems of School Children." *Education.* Vol. 70, No. 7 (March, 1950), p. 429.

c. Voice problems—pitch and quality
d. Foreign accent

2. Organic disorders
a. Cleft palate
b. Hearing losses
c. Cerebral palsy

9.66 *Educational Adjustments for Children with Speech Impairments*

Children with speech impairments need special help. Where this help can best be given and by whom depend entirely upon the individual child in relation to his handicap. Obviously, the more serious the handicap, the more specialized personnel needed and the greater the chances of segregation from the regular room. The following adjustments are possible:

1. *Adjustments within regular classes.* Whenever possible, it is best to keep the child in the regular classroom with his regular teacher giving the guidance and teaching necessary for the formation of new speech habits. The regular classroom is ideal because the child remains in a normal social grouping and because he is afforded an abundance of speaking experiences which are necessary in learning new speech habits. New speech habits cannot be learned unless there is opportunity to practice the new pattern under constant supervision.

Most of the speech handicaps found in children are functional in nature; in fact, from 70 to 85 per cent [47] of the cases are articulatory in nature. Consequently, children with articulatory defects constitute the main grouping under the functional type of speech handicaps.

The regular classroom teacher must prepare himself in order to work with speech-defective children. He must understand the causes of speech defects and be willing to provide remedial and corrective measures in an atmosphere which is free from stresses and strains and conducive to speech-correction work. The classroom teacher is

[47] Wendell Johnson. "Teaching Children with Speech Handicaps." *The Education of Exceptional Children*, p. 177. Forty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 1950. Quoted by permission of the Society.

not expected to be able to diagnose speech defects; this is left to the speech correctionist, who serves as a consultant to the regular teacher. The speech correctionist recommends to the teacher procedures to follow in the treatment of the afflicted child as he continues his work under the direction and guidance of the teacher.

The following are specific ways in which the regular classroom teacher can carry out speech correction work as a part of the regular school program:

The follow-up drill, which is so important after speech instruction, is carried out by many of them in the reading lesson or in private conference periods. Choral reading is helping pupils to grow in articulation and pleasing speech. Creative dramatics is being used successfully to develop the pupil's creative expression. Rhythm bands in the primary grades contribute to bodily relaxation and control.[48]

2. *Adjustments within regular classrooms with supplementary help from an itinerant speech correctionist.* Those speech-defective children who need help in addition to that provided by the regular classroom teacher may be given help by a speech correctionist who meets with them two or three periods during the week. The children are segregated from their normal groups for only the periods of special instruction. The regular classroom teacher continues to be the key person in the speech program. This provision is especially commendable, since it provides special training on a specific speech defect by the speech correctionist and also provides for the guidance and direction of the regular classroom teacher by the speech correctionist on methods and activities for remedial classroom activities as an integral part of the regular program. The regular classroom teacher and the speech correctionist must work in close harmony on individual cases involving speech impediment.

3. *Adjustments within special speech centers.* Some children have speech defects so serious that they need to remain full time, or almost full time, with specialists in speech correction. Speech centers may be located in regular schools and, if possible, some experiences should

[48] Vera F. Powell and Orpha N. Voorhees. "Speech Correction in Kanawha County Schools." *Elementary School Journal.* Vol. 51, No. 5 (January, 1951), p. 282.

be planned with normally speaking pupils. Even though the special center means segregation, these pupils would be so greatly handicapped in regular classrooms that little progress could be made. The advantages of expert training are more important for this type of speech defective than the advantages of remaining in a normal group. However, as soon as a child has improved sufficiently, he should be transferred to a regular classroom.

9.67 *Personal Guidance for Those with Speech Impairments*

Most children who have speech impairments need personal guidance. Regardless of the cause of the defect, the chances that the pupil will develop inferiority complexes, fears, tensions, and other personality maladjustments are present. That large group of speech defectives whose defects result from emotional imbalances emphasizes the need for personal guidance.

Good speech-correction work must be built on proper attitudes. A child cannot work out a solution to his problem unless he realizes that he has a problem and wants to correct his speech habits.[49] This is an important aspect of guidance with the speech defective.

Where fears, tensions, or frustrations cause the speech defect, these must be removed before progress can be made. Careful, patient, nondirective guidance is imperative. The therapy in this case would be directed at the cause rather than the disability.

In still other cases, emotional imbalances and frustrations result because of the presence of a speech impairment. All remedial measures possible should be used to eliminate or alleviate the disability causing the emotional imbalance. Not in all cases can the cause be eliminated. This means that counseling directed toward the alleviation of emotional imbalances in spite of existing impediments must be attempted. These are difficult cases and require the services of an expert in counseling speech defectives.

It is important that the group experiences of speech-defective children have mental-health values as well. Special care should be taken not to ridicule or mimic a child suffering from speech difficulty, and every effort should be made to avoid subjecting him to pressures. The speech-correction program should have as one of its aims the

[49] Milton Eastman. "Speech Correction in the Classroom." *The Grade Teacher*. Vol. 67, No. 6 (February, 1950), p. 49.

restoration or inculcation of confidence of each child in himself to speak correctly.

9.68 *Vocational Guidance for Those with Speech Impairments*

Particularly with speech defectives, vocational- and personal-guidance needs are closely related. The extent to which the individual has been able to free himself from frustrations and emotional imbalances is directly related to vocational adjustment.

The selection of a vocation by the speech defective is determined, in part, by the degree to which the handicap has been eliminated. The greater the handicap, the greater the possibility that certain vocations based on the ability to speak clearly will be closed. It should be remembered, however, that there is still a wide selection of useful occupations for these persons, and counseling should direct the thinking of the student toward those occupations where the speech impairment would not deter success. In addition to selection of a vocation, training, placement, and follow-up must be an integral part of the guidance program.

9.69 *Adjustments for Speech Defectives in Small Schools and Rural Areas*

Since the major portion of all speech work can best be accomplished by the regular classroom teacher, work with children with speech impairments can go forward in small schools and rural areas. Teachers will need help in diagnosis and planning suitable programs. This problem can be alleviated somewhat in small schools if a speech correctionist is secured to travel from school to school, in a county or area, giving special speech training to children having impairments and offering suggestions and help to the teacher carrying out the remedial activities as a part of his classroom work. Special manuals on speech correction prepared by county or area supervisors and given to teachers in their work with speech defectives can help.[50] It will be necessary for the small school to enroll the child with a serious defect in a special speech center for diagnosis and treatment.

[50] An excellent example of this type of material for regular teachers was prepared for the Kanawha County Schools, Charleston, W.V. Staff of the Department of Speech Instruction, Kanawha County Schools. *Guide to Speech Instruction.* Charleston, W.V.: Kanawha County Schools. 1949.

9.70 *Cooperation between Home and School for Speech Defectives*

Speech is a tool used in the home as well as in the school. It would be advantageous for the teacher of children with defective speech to visit the parents. If the cause of the speech impairment is not the result of parent-pupil relationships, and if it appears that the parent could give assistance in carrying out corrective exercises at home, then the parent should be made a participating member of the team. Those persons who outline the work the parent is to do should be sure that the parent does not apply the pressures avoided in a classroom.

Backus [51] gives the following suggestions for parental cooperation in a speech-correction program:

1. They should actively support the program undertaken for the rehabilitation of their own children.
2. They should attempt to supply as freely and as accurately as possible all information about the child and his environment that may be necessary from a clinical point of view.
3. They should make a real and persistent effort to carry out recommendations for treatment.

THE LEFT-HANDED CHILD

9.71 *Adjustments for Left-handed Children*

Left-handedness is natural for some pupils. There is nothing defective about the left-handed writer.

With left-handed pupils, the writing posture and position of the paper should be the reverse of the position used by right-handed writers. This is the natural way for the left-handed writer to do his work and does not cause him to assume a writing posture with writing hand above the line of writing, Left-handed pupils are at a disadvantage if they follow the same slant of letters used by right-handed writers in writing a right-handed alphabet. Backhand slant is normal for left-handed writers, and they should be encouraged to write in this fashion. For the left-handed writer to use a right-handed slant usually results in his twisting his hand around his

[51] Ollie L. Backus. *Speech in Education*, p. 97. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc. 1945.

writing. If, however, a left-handed writer finds it difficult or uncomfortable for him to write in the position which would seem normal for a left-handed writer, the teacher should help him to work out for himself the most comfortable and efficient position.

Left-handedness in writing should be regarded as normal with these children, and methods of instruction and equipment should be provided in keeping with this need. Lighting and seating arrangements should be made for left-handed children. Enough left-handed chairs should be provided to accommodate all left-handed writers.

Parents sometimes express anxiety over the fact that their children are left-handed. Teachers should assure them that for their children to write left-handed is natural and that no attempt should be made to force right-handed writing habits.

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